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Practical
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Public
Libraries

By
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To the MEMORY of
MABEL ARCHIBALD WHEELER

and to
ELEANOR PAYNE GOLDHOR

Their high hearted good will
and inspiring devotion
are part of this book

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Introduction

This book is intended as a guide to management principles and their practical application in public libraries. It incorporates changing viewpoints and methods from a wide range of library situations, including those found in more than a hundred surveys and consulting projects. It draws on more than two hundred books and two thousand articles, bulletins and reports published since 1950 and especially since 1955, in the fields of public, business, industrial and educational administration, in addition to the broad stream of library periodicals, committee reports, books and local library publications.

The book is addressed not only to library heads and their staffs, but to trustees, public officials, such as mayors, city managers, councilmen and appropriating groups, and to laymen, all of whom need to understand what public libraries are supposed to accomplish and how they are managed and operated. It is intended also for library school instruction and in-service training.

Much of it applies to college and other types of library service, cutting across compartments and gulfs that set different types of library service too far apart. In their fundamentals all libraries partake of the same general purpose and the same principles and problems. Recent grants by the Council on Library Resources concern special needs of the very large and the very small libraries—those with over 500,000 and less than 10,000 population. Though their special problems are given less attention herein, most of the present text is equally pertinent to their management.

Most importantly, the book is written also for department heads, first assistants, the heads of 4,000 branch libraries, and for all others having administrative or supervisory responsibilities. A majority of library school graduates find themselves within four or five years, if not immediately, in administrative or supervisory positions, but with little practical preparation. Whether administrators are born or made, it seems reasonable that they could do a still better administrative job by considering the condensed published experience of others.

After working and talking with hundreds of alert and ambitious

assistants in many libraries, one must conclude that none gets the fullest satisfaction from his work unless he understands the principles of administration. If he has reasoned out why certain things are done as they are and how they might perhaps be done better, he can play a more enjoyable and rewarding part in the development of his own library. Conversely, this understanding may encourage some head librarians to share their administrative problems and decisions and the execution thereof with their colleagues more easily and fully.

Undoubtedly the small local public libraries will eventually combine into large systems to their administrative advantage. But it seems hardly logical that only this road can lead to administrative improvement, or that bigness will necessarily assure excellent administration, with expensive administrative specialists to be drawn on. The majority of libraries will at best continue independently for some years. Hundreds of existing branches of city systems are by no means as well managed as they could be, and as yet there has been little discussion of bringing the great proliferation of school libraries into larger systems except in the larger cities. No matter how large or small the library, and whether it be public, college, school or special library, it seems realistic to focus attention and study on developing administrative skills by all those whose present responsibility is to administer—the librarians, department and branch heads, and the numerous persons called on to instruct and guide the work of others.

The lessons from public, business and industrial management make it clear that administrative skills can and should be developed now and every day on every level, including students and young assistants, most of them college graduates, eager to get their teeth into something more substantial than the ABC's of the administrative aspects of the profession in which they expect to spend some years, if not to carve a career. Some present teaching encourages the outdated assumption that there is a gulf fixed between the chief librarian and the beginner, assistant, clerical worker, page or janitor, or between the trained and the untrained. This book rests on the conviction that books, reading and study are increasingly important, that library service is a fascinating and socially useful endeavor, to be shared equally by a whole circle of colleagues, each able with encouragement to cultivate the ability to see, to understand and to participate.

No apology is offered for interpreting many topics from the background of the writers' experiences, or for including significant opinions, incidents and cases generously reported by scores of other librarians and not always identified herein. It would be impossible to thank adequately the many librarians and assistants, trustees, business and public administrators and writers who have helped so generously in the preparation of this book; a list of them would fill two or three pages. We thank the staff members

of the Enoch Pratt Free Library of Baltimore, and of the Evansville (Indiana) Public Library and Vanderburgh County Public Library for their encouragement and many good deeds in its behalf. Over a hundred librarians have generously read and annotated various chapter drafts to help us make a better book. Harry C. Bauer, Mary Wheeler Beavin, Arthur Kittle, Elsa von Hohenhoff, Harold L. Roth, Stuart C. Sherman, Dorothy S. Truesdale and Frederick Wezeman have been especially liberal in the extent of their good help. Our appreciation to all is very great. It is hoped that this book may prompt others to make further studies and to compile much-needed case books and supplementary reading collections.

January 5, 1962

Joseph L. Wheeler, Benson, Vermont
Herbert Goldhor, Urbana, Illinois

PART 1.

Overhead Responsibility:

Planning. Ways and Means

CHAPTER 1

Objectives and Functions of the Public Library

A visitor from abroad standing in the midst of a busy American public library is impressed by the sight of so many men, women and children hurrying about to get books and information, or quietly reading and studying in the various departments, or asking for reference help at the service desks, or walking out with the books they have borrowed. He observes that most of these individuals get personal help, but that no one inquires the name, the status, the politics or religion or the purposes of any one of the library users. Each user comes and goes as an individual. Each is equally entitled to the most effective help the library can give. Objectives and interests are as numerous as the crowd. Our visitor is looking at a unique manifestation of the democratic process, the freedom of each citizen to read and to think as he may decide for himself, about any subject he chooses.

These millions of Americans are borrowing more than 550 million books a year from 8,000 public libraries. As users and taxpayers, the purposes, the operating methods and the management of public libraries should be of interest to a wide range of these citizens.

The public library's functions and programs derive from the conviction that books and other printed matter as well as certain audio-visual materials are powerful, indispensable agents for bringing enlightenment, new knowledge, encouragement and inspiration to every member of the community.^{1-2,3} * One function remains constant: to provide and service materials for enlarging the mind and dispelling prejudice and ignorance. "This implies the necessity of making access to the truth easy and rapid for anyone who seeks it. For the overwhelming majority, the quickest and easiest access to the world's best thought is through the public library."⁴ This means very recent facts and ideas as well as the wisdom of the ages; the library must be current as well as retrospective.

*Numbers refer to notes at the ends of chapters.

As one newscaster sees them: "Today's libraries are much more than books alone. They are also art reproductions, music recordings, language aids, motion pictures, microfilms, meeting rooms for discussion groups. . . . They are beehives of activity . . . busy humming market places of ideas where the fields of interest are not narrowed to the educational or the cultural, but limitless as the span of man's own consciousness: a veritable treasure chest of facts and follies . . . a kind of intellectual service station. . . ."6 This puts some secondary activities on a par with primary functions, but it gives the feeling of the modern busy library.

Every earnest person desires to live and work in the firm belief that his occupation is important and useful to society; librarians are no exception. Most of them choose their profession because they are convinced of the salutary influence of books and reading, and most of them realize that through the library's materials and services they can greatly serve their community.

VALUE AND FORMULATION OF GOALS

In serving its community a library should freshly study and formulate what it should or should not attempt. With specific objectives it can plan its immediate and long-range program. Goals determine daily decisions and make book selection more effective. They influence the internal organization, the selection and assignment of staff members, the quality and kind of service. In turn they also determine the extent of its public support, and establish criteria to measure results.

Goals, or objectives, should derive from many sources: from the librarian's knowledge of present trends and problems in society; from his awareness of what goes on, nationally, in education and in cultural and intellectual fields; from national and local library leaders who have the background of discussion, debate, observation and experience. The staff members who are in constant contact with library users should have the right to participate in drawing up a statement of purposes and programs.

Such a statement of goals needs to be written out, needs to be realistic, and must depend always upon the library's resources and funds; it must be possible to achieve the goals. The statement needs periodic review in the light of results achieved and of changes in the local situation. It should be compared with current developments elsewhere, but not distorted by temporary fads and enthusiasms. It should be comprehensive but aimed at a unitary concept of the library's purpose, and not diffused in scattered questions, problems or ideals.

Unified goals lead to policies. Policies govern programs and procedures. Goals deal with the larger aim: what the library hopes to accomplish. Policies are general directions as to what activities shall be undertaken, on

what scale, with what emphasis. *Programs* are the framework for activities, showing how in general the latter are to be planned, organized and managed. An *activity* is a specific operation or event undertaken or sponsored by the library. *Procedures* relate to operational details of activities. *Standards* are officially adopted or widely accepted measures by which to evaluate results; they may be derived from reliable data, or they may be rule-of-thumb dicta based on trial and experience.

The Background of Present Objectives

One can hardly understand and appreciate the philosophy and prevailing objectives of a profession without knowing what led up to them. Libraries stemmed from the ideal of improving society, a purpose or goal widely accepted. The ideal goes back to a national belief, prevalent since colonial days, in "the improbability of human nature." Many books deal with this stimulating viewpoint, sometimes called "social Darwinism in American thought." Franklin and Washington and their colleagues in organizing our government held this "... concept, characteristic of their time, of the indefinite perfectability of man and his institutions, the belief that man could determine the main line of his progress, and the opinion that institutions existed to further progress, and that education was one of the principal means."⁶

This continuing, altruistic American conviction underlies social legislation and other public effort to ameliorate living conditions in the face of the indifferent, the compromisers and the reactionaries. Under the influence of this conviction, librarians assume that the library is a potent factor in forwarding education and economic and social progress. They see evidence each hour of each day that the library's materials are a positive influence in the thinking and in the lives of their fellow citizens.

A Philosophy of Librarianship

Much has been written on the lack of "a philosophy of librarianship."⁷ Most librarians are not deeply concerned about this; they are preoccupied with daily service and performance. Any statement of the basic philosophy of the American public library has to be supplemented by occasional fresh interpretations of its applications as adjusted to the times. Each year this democratic institution undergoes unforeseeable changes, as to appeal, modernity and efficiency, which aim to keep it in line with the constant procession of new problems, purposes and methods of American and world society. Consequently a librarian does well to study such considered statements, for example, as the two on national goals and purposes, which appeared in 1960.^{8, 9} Similarly, the returns from the 1960 census provide a new set of facts which indicate changes in the character and situations

and therefore in the attitudes and needs of the population. Some inevitable results in library planning have already been forecast.¹⁰

Among recent developments following the Public Library Inquiry of 1947-50 have been the passage of and results from the Federal Library Services Act of June, 1956, and its five-year renewal from July, 1961. Following carefully worked-out plans based on the American Library Association's 1956 standards for public library service, appropriations were increased so that in 1961 Federal funds of \$7 million were matched by more than \$9 million in state funds and about \$4 million in local funds, a total of about \$20 million annually. The number of counties without library service was cut from 319 to 200, basic reference collections have been strengthened and general services improved in many individual systems.¹¹ Great progress is being made in drawing small-town and village libraries into a rapidly increasing number of regional systems. There are the widening and gratifying results from National Library Week, inaugurated in 1958. There has been radical improvement in general appearance and interior planning in scores of recent library buildings. Never has so much careful research been going on in so many aspects of librarianship as today, partly stimulated by grants for individual projects from the Council on Library Resources. These indicate that library leadership, nationally and in many states, is disposed and able to develop dynamic library programs which can propel books and libraries into the heart of what goes on in this nation.¹² Only continued planning and effort can keep libraries moving ahead to close the gap between needs and actualities. One major objective is to bring weak little libraries into large systems. The need to accelerate this is suggested by the following Table 1-1, for fiscal 1960. It shows that 5,768 of the 8,190 identified libraries in the U.S., or 70 per cent, are in communities of less than 10,000 population. This had grown from 4,486 in 1955.

Objectives in More Detail

Among topics and problems which engage the attention of library leaders in the 1960's, are these:

1. The need for a general shift of attention from elaborate organization toward reaching and serving the great population which still does not read or use books in any substantial way, through creative and imaginative programs for extending the adult reading habit and informational service.
2. A more active role for the library in the community as an intellectual powerhouse and rallying point, partly achieved through more effective public relations and publicity. The essentially passive library cannot be allowed to continue undisturbed in its inertia.
3. Greater understanding of the individual reader and of the potential reader—his motivations, his reactions to books, reading and libraries, as preface to

improved service. Studies directed by Lowell Martin, 1962-1965, at Baltimore, may produce important new facts to help on this.

Table 1-1. Number and Per Cent of Public Library Systems, by Size of Population Served, Aggregate U.S.: Fiscal Year 1960*

Population served	Number of libraries	Percentage of total
Total	8,190	100.0
Less than 1,000	1,574	19.2
1,000-2,499	1,874	22.9
2,500-4,999	1,209	14.8
5,000-9,999	1,111	13.6
10,000-14,999	591	7.2
15,000-24,999	610	7.5
25,000-34,999	311	3.8
35,000-49,999	287	3.5
50,000-99,999	369	4.5
100,000-499,999	217	2.6
500,000-999,999	28	.3
1 million and over	9	.1

*From Table 2 in Frank L. Schick and Doris C. Holladay, *Statistics of Public Libraries Serving Populations of 100,000 or More: Fiscal Year 1960*. 24 pp. Nov. 1961. U.S. Office of Education. OE-15033.²²

4. Extended recruiting and better training for more librarians and clerical workers, in library schools and elsewhere, including on-the-job training, and the training of part-time and volunteer workers in smaller libraries.

5. More specific standards and measurements by which to evaluate how good a job is being done in each aspect of the work.

6. More attention to research on what libraries are doing, why, at what cost, and how staff members can be deployed more effectively to accomplish major objectives.

7. The need for speeding up the creation of regional and large cooperative library organizations, with able central staffs and strong collections to serve widely-spread smaller service points which should be federated for greater economy and usefulness.

8. Continued effort by library organizations to increase state and federal financing of public libraries beyond whatever increases can be secured from local government.

9. The need for serving more effectively the increasing throngs of grade and high school pupils seeking reference help, because even good school libraries are not likely to have the variety of materials which a public library has or to be open for pupil use as many hours—all this while greatly developing adult informational reading and reference services to more than equal the library's service to children and young people.

10. Increased emphasis on efficient methods of finding information, cooperative bibliographic enterprises, and use of machines if not too costly, or simpler devices, to accelerate the recording and rendering of more detailed information needed by a constantly more specialized clientele.

In a sense the library has a monopoly on certain distinct and unique objectives and services: reading, study, informational and reference help. It can profitably concentrate on these. Whatever overlaps and duplicates what other institutions and agencies can or should do better or more logically diverts attention, funds and endeavor from these basic activities.

The *Post-War Standards for Public Libraries*, issued in 1943 by A. L. A., stimulated library services everywhere by defining objectives and describing desirable accomplishments. The most recent considered formulation of objectives in somewhat specific form appears in the opening pages of *Public Library Service . . . 1956*, resulting from two years' study by an able committee of A. L. A.¹⁴ This statement, with a few omissions, follows here:

Functions of the Public Library

The modern public library collects the printed and audio-visual materials needed to conduct the individual and group life of its constituency. It organizes and makes them convenient and easy to use. It interprets and guides the use of materials to enable as many persons as possible to apply in their daily lives the record of what is known. Lack of any one of these—collection, organization and distribution, interpretation and guidance—results in sub-standard library service. . . .

"Provision of materials means more than occasional availability. It means a supply sufficient to make the library a dependable source for more people most of the time. In addition to books, the public library selects and provides pamphlets, documents and other nonbook sources in printed form, and films, tapes, discs, and other nonprint recording of knowledge and opinion.

"The materials are provided:

To facilitate informal self-education of all people in the community

To enrich and further develop the subjects on which individuals are undertaking formal education

To meet the informational needs of all

To support the educational, civic, and cultural activities of groups and organizations

To encourage wholesome recreation and constructive use of leisure time.

Services

"All activities of the library are designed to facilitate use of resources—to remove barriers, to invite use, to guide reading toward the goals of each individual.

"Services provided by the public library must be planned in relation to other facilities in the community served. Standards for service must recognize the

necessary variations in library programs required by differing communities.

"The services performed by the modern library are as follows:

Logical organization of materials for convenient use through shelf arrangement, classification, and cataloging

Lending of materials so that they may be used in the location and at the time suited to each individual

Provision of information service designed to locate facts as needed

Guidance to individuals in the use of educational and recreational material

Assistance to civic, cultural, and educational organizations, in locating and using materials for program planning, projects, and the education of members

Stimulation of use and interpretation of materials through publicity, display, reading lists, story hours, book talks, book and film discussion, and other appropriate means either in the library or in community organizations.

"The materials, services, personnel, and physical facilities of the public library cover the interests of all ages and groups in the population. Starting with the very youngest, the pre-school child needs special resources and help. The fast-growing group of children of school age constitutes another important part of the library responsibility. Teenagers and young adults, the challenging group approximately thirteen through nineteen years of age that is making the transition from home and school to adult life, constitute still another distinct responsibility. The various groups and interests in the adult population—the parent, the farmer, the businessman, for example—should be reflected in materials and services. The library responsibility extends to those aspects of the wellbeing of older and retired people that can be served by library facilities. It is to be expressly understood that each standard in this document applies to all ages and groups, and that a standard is not achieved if its provisions are met for one part of the population but not for another.

"Below these minimum functions of modern library service the child and citizen are denied reasonable opportunity to develop. . . ."

THE PRIMACY OF PRINT

By 1955, citizens of the United States were borrowing more than 500 million books a year from their public libraries, not to mention what they borrowed from school, college and other libraries. On the basis of population in the areas served, this amounted to 4.2 books per capita compared with 3.4 volumes per capita in 1950. By 1960 the total figure had doubtless exceeded 550 million.¹⁵

Even more impressive, national book sales amounted to \$1,100 million in 1960, compared with \$500 million in 1952.¹⁶ The popular demand for paperback books grows fastest of all; sales are now at the rate of a million a day, and include an increasing proportion of nonfiction and good fiction. There is also the enormous vogue of book club patronage, and the more than half billion circulation for each issue of the 8,000 various U.S. period-

icals now published. Yet the total impact of all forms of reading, including newspapers and magazines, is far behind the pervasiveness of such popular mass media as radio, TV and movies. Of six nations included in a 1957 Gallup poll, only 17 per cent of U.S. citizens had been "reading a book at the time of interview," while in Canada 31 per cent, Australia 33 per cent, West Germany 34 per cent and England 55 per cent were "reading a book at present." Still more disconcerting, the per cent in the U.S. had dropped from 21 per cent in 1949. Only 39 per cent in the U.S. had read a book during the last year, whereas in Finland 64 per cent had.¹⁷

The public considers book service to be the public library's province, and books its reason for existence. Books, reading and study afford opportunities for improvement and relaxation and sources of information not obtainable through ubiquitous radio and television sets and other popular time consumers. Some books have profoundly influenced the destiny of all nations.¹⁸ They have deeply affected the lives of countless individuals. Hitler feared books enough to burn them, and U.S. Information Service libraries in a few foreign lands are still being attacked by those determined to stifle the diffusion of knowledge and the spread of new ideas. Instead of taking a defeatist attitude, librarians should endeavor to help change the popular attitude, the too light response to books and too little inclination to read and study. In the present concern for national progress and production, public libraries are a prolific source for objectives, ideas and facts to help the intelligent public in its enterprises. They deserve far more recognition and financial support than they have anywhere received.

Libraries are directly affected and encouraged by the tremendous increases in school and college enrollment: grade school, from 22 million in 1950 to 31 million in 1960, and probably 38 million by 1970; high school, from 7 million in 1950 to 9 million in 1960 and probably 15 million by 1970; and college, from 2 million in 1950 to 3½ million in 1960 and perhaps 6 million by 1970. M.A. degrees have climbed from 58,000 in 1950 to 87,000 in 1960 and probably will be 163,000 by 1970; doctor's degrees from 6,600 in 1950 to 10,500 in 1960 and perhaps 20,000 by 1970. These figures indicate a widespread desire for preparation for more intensive and specialized occupations. They result, in part, from the modern emphasis on national scientific research and development, on which \$1.8 billion was spent in 1945 but \$12 billion in 1959 and probably \$22 billion by 1970.¹⁹ In 1960 also 35 million persons were enrolled in adult education classes,²⁰ and over 35 million women were women's club members.

A Relentless Drive to Dispel Ignorance

Unless librarians have a conviction that "the things of the mind" are highly important to each citizen's development and satisfactions in life, they can hardly have a profound belief that their books and libraries are

very important; their own philosophy and objectives are thereby greatly diminished.

Growth of the reading habit and of all library service has been retarded by widespread disrespect for schools, teachers, books and libraries; for the trained and open individual mind; for the scientific approach to any subject; for the talented, imaginative, highly motivated person who can discover, invent, organize and lead society forward; and for the individual who can concentrate on thinking out a problem or an idea by himself, instead of rolling smoothly along with the herd. No school or college can offset the deficiencies of culturally underprivileged homes. The homes of many wealthy and intelligent parents lack motivation toward intellectual interests. "Ours is a society which does not honor reading. . . . If Johnny's parents don't read, why should he submit to the rigors of acquiring that discipline? When his parents learn to read, Johnny will learn."²¹ These attitudes, shared by large segments of the population, have a profound influence on the importance that a library places on its own services. A recent encouraging sign is the occasional town or city which now awards the high school's initial, heretofore a sign of athletic prowess, to the few who get highest scholastic marks.

What Good Is a Book in the 1960's?

One major contribution of reading is that it concentrates one's mind directly on the carefully recorded thoughts of others. These thoughts do not flit across the screen, or sound for a second in one's ears and then dissipate without being comprehended. Ideas, information, even stories reflecting human nature and character, wait on the printed page, to be read, reread, pondered, reconsidered in all their depth and richness, until their full meaning and significance leave an indelible impression.

The psychological value of concentrating and of quiet reflection is very great, as shown in numerous studies on the correlation of high reading ability with high scholastic marks. Reading and close attention are not easy. But the accomplishments of great men and famous women as well as the hard-won advances in arts and sciences always have depended and always will depend on concentration and close application. Despite the values of radio, TV, movies, discussion groups and other means of communication, it is only at their infrequent best that they are conducive to reflection and substantial thinking. Though a book is the best visual aid ever devised, constructive mass media have their place, and audio-visual materials must be recognized as an aid to understanding; at present they are rapidly developing as a supplementary device for class instruction.

Though facts and ideas are more easily available to the population than ever before, books are likely to play a correspondingly greater part in American life, because:

1. Only books provide the substantial portion of definite information which people need frequently to pursue their various objectives.

2. Only books provide the substantial aesthetic and emotional experience of appreciating well-written interpretations of life, and looking into the minds and souls of the characters described. Compare for example the satisfaction of reading *Treasure Island*, or *Gone With the Wind*, or *Anna Karenina*, which enlarge and enrich, with their brief portrayal on TV or in the movies, usually curtailed or altered. To be sure, a good movie plus the notable book it derives from, or a play, or a musical production plus a textual explanation and evaluation of it make a combination more rewarding than either alone.

3. No other medium can let the demands of the content, rather than some outside consideration, dictate the length of the presentation. Thus, to deal with an idea of any scope and with the intensity it deserves only the book will serve. Most subjects, descriptions and characterizations can be handled adequately only by having time enough and material enough to do them justice. The reader is the one, and he deserves to be, to decide how slowly or how fast he will go, how much skimming and how much intensive repetition he will indulge in, and when and for how long he will put his mind to the matter.

4. Only the book, i.e., print, can eliminate the distraction of the personality of the actor or the broadcaster and the awareness of commercialized or group pressure, as in most programs on TV, movies and radio. Though occasional exceptions are highly encouraging, to anyone who reads with enjoyment and attention these extraneous influences on and from mass media are distracting, exasperating and often belittling and intolerable.

5. Only the book, i.e., print, makes it practicable for the ordinary citizen to turn back to what he saw, read, heard even a few days ago, and lay his hands upon it so that he can follow up some idea, question, objective that has been sticking in his mind as worth pursuing. "Last week's movie, yesterday's newspaper, this morning's TV show, are for all practical purposes gone forever," so far as helping him with what he wishes to look into further.²²

6. Only books and print meet the need of the individual who wishes to inquire, think and act on his own chosen subject, for his own reasons and in his own way, instead of being influenced or controlled by group or herd thinking and objectives. Often it is only in books that he can examine all sides of a subject.

7. Only the book, among major communication media, encourages the highly desirable habit of quiet, relaxed thinking and reflection. "The rising demand for mental skills and the burgeoning of knowledge, put heavy pressure on school children. . . . If children are to be eager learners and thinkers, adults must set an example."²³ Reading parents make reading children. And libraries should be not only places of learning but places of delight.

What Books Have Done for Individuals

It avails little, in today's society, to recall the powerful part which books have played in the lives of many great men and women, including Lincoln, Ford, Edison, Westinghouse, Pasteur, Livingstone, Franklin, and as por-

trayed in hundred of biographies. It could be argued that all this is from bygone days and totally different conditions, if it were not that this procession keeps on today, as in the recent case of Benjamin Fairless,²⁴ and many others who could be identified by librarians if they were asked. If, for example, any good library in a city of over 100,000 population currently publicized its wish to prepare a public exhibition of materials, products, inventions, art work, handicrafts, or writings, the ideas for which came from the local library's books and other materials, a surprising number of worthy, interesting examples would be brought forward. All these persons, in days gone by and today, had one priceless ingredient in their satisfactions in life, namely a powerful objective backed by a deep conviction and determination. A gathering of such cases by libraries is badly needed as ammunition for library programs aimed at individuals, and as a reminder that books count more than ever for local and national progress.

OBJECTIVE: TO SERVE INDIVIDUALS

A good library works closely with all community organizations. It will take a position of leadership, not necessarily through its librarian heading up some group or activity which puts him in news headlines or on a public platform to argue a cause, but through its initiative in encouraging various community organizations in constructive programs, as a phase of adult education. But the library administrator cannot overlook or neglect his continuing obligation to the individuals who already come and those who can be encouraged to come to the library seeking services which are as yet not good enough in any respect.²⁵ For the library should attract and serve a far greater proportion of the population than has been reached so far in any community, enabling them to use library materials for reading and study to an extent not yet attempted anywhere. Many of these prospective patrons belong to organizations only vaguely aware of what the library can give them. As citizens who should participate actively in discussion meetings on vital current topics, they need to develop their individual mental powers by reading and studying material chosen on their own initiative on which to base their own thinking, as a preface and supplement to competent discussion.²⁶

As Wakeman says, "Librarianship involves great challenges. We claim that our purpose is to supply 'the right book to the right reader at the right time.' Yet the extraordinarily intimate and delicate transactions involved in reader's advisory work are now conducted with only the shallowest understanding of why and how individuals are affected by what they read."²⁷ This idea of paying attention to the individual is in sharp contrast to the mass transfer of information and impressions, for example over TV and radio. Thomas Finletter has stated: "When I think of ten million

passive spectators, all watching one man on a television screen, all listening at the same time to one persuasive voice, I am a little frightened. . . . The thinker-for-himself comes, stubborn and alone, to wring his own meanings and fill his own needs. . . . The public library seeks not to enforce the one idea upon the many, but to open to each individual user the unnumbered wealth of intellectual resources from which he can serve not another's ends, but his own."²⁸

It should be a major objective for public libraries to recognize and aid the individual as such, even though he is most easily reached through a group. As Ulveling points out, "More than a century ago, libraries were organized to serve individuals. . . . That libraries can and do still hold uppermost their service to individuals is their greatest strength."²⁹ The greatest possible number of schoolchildren deserve to be taught to read easily and with enjoyment. Thereafter they need continual aid, in school and especially in adulthood with individual reading programs. Libraries should give constant stimulation to adults to read for information, for cultural self-development, for citizenship, for recreation. The public library shares this objective with the school and college library. It therefore needs to have a keen interest in and understanding of methods and problems in teaching reading, and in the humanities, as part of its own background for service.

There is wide current discussion of the old question: how far is it the public library's function to serve children and high school pupils who have or should have excellent school libraries? The case of Arlington County, Virginia, is cited in Chapter 22 to show how unrealistic is the proposal to bar or discourage their use of the public library. Any study of what pupils ask for, how they fare, why they seek more public library help rather than less when they have good school libraries, will indicate that the public library has a continuing social obligation to serve these young people as fully as it can, while it also helps to create and strengthen their school libraries.³⁰ But the majority of the population is over twenty-one, and these adults deserve the major share of the library's attention.

Obligation to the Gifted

It seems also incumbent on librarians to discover and encourage those many gifted persons in and out of school, of every age and in every social and economic level, now largely ignored or considered "squares," who have the brains, background, ability, ambition, character and vision requisite for becoming tomorrow's leaders. This objective is compatible with increasing and improving library services to the sizable segment of the population already using them, and at the same time reaching out to attract more recruits into the circle of library users. Excellence can be sought and attained in a context of concern for all. Specific programs for the gifted, in

schools and colleges, are constantly being inaugurated and are producing results.²¹ The public library can do as much, by giving all the help possible to those readers who seem to have special promise, and assigning someone in each library of any size to be specially responsible. "Reading is the *sine qua non* of the gifted child's intellectual development . . ."²² and no doubt this is equally true of adults.

THE LIBRARY'S PRIME EDUCATIONAL FUNCTION

Books and reading have a powerful influence on society. Convinced of this, the library under real leadership can become an active, effective educational center primarily for individual learning, and in a secondary way for group discussion and lectures. Not content with serving those who take the initiative in asking its aid, it needs to embark on a continuing program to encourage citizens in every walk of life to use books and print in ever more effective ways. There is now a clearer view than hitherto of the library's obligation to promote the use of books of an informational, inspirational and self-educational nature. At the same time it can foster the reading of excellent fiction and other recreational books. There is no incompatibility in such a dual conception of service.²³ With all the high school patronage, involving mainly books designated "adult," the present overwhelming and increasing proportion of juvenile circulation, especially from bookmobiles and branches, is poor evidence of any deep conviction that adult education through books is a major objective, as most librarians claim that it should be. Many intelligent adults have had negative experiences at their libraries, and library promotion has not yet become effective enough in the face of other adult distractions.

Index of American Public Library Circulation

The following index was compiled by the University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science and is based on monthly circulation reports from 38 public libraries which are known to constitute a representative sample of all U.S. public libraries in cities of over 25,000 (1950) population. Each index value is the median of the 38 libraries' percentages found when their current circulation figure is divided by their own circulation figure of 1939.

Adult Education Through Groups

Though public schools and other agencies are active in adult education, certain forms of adult education can perhaps be fostered and carried on in the public library more effectively than anywhere else. The climate of informality, the library's tradition of neutrality, the availability of rooms and

Table 1-2. Biennial Index Values for a Sample of 38 American Public Libraries 1939-60 (1939=100)

	1939	'40	'42	'44	'46	'48	'50	'52	'54	'56	'58	'60
Index Value	100	98	80	75	76	76	85	89	102	110	119	127
Per Cent Juvenile	33	31	36	38	38	42	44	49	50	50	51	50
Per Cent												
Adult Fiction	46	48	43	40	39	35	31	27	26.5	26	24	24
Per Cent												
Adult Nonfiction	21	21	21	22	23	23	25	24	23.5	24	25	26

Based on table in A. L. A. *Bulletin*, 55:646, July-Aug. 1961.

the fact that libraries and librarians are looked to for community intellectual initiative and enterprise—these place on the library some responsibility to be a leader in promoting lectures, discussion meetings and other group programs, if it can afford them. At least it can encourage and house them. Some of them may well be carried out elsewhere; in which case the library can cooperate or serve as co-sponsor.

Public libraries need to encourage group discussion, which can do so much to contribute varying viewpoints. While many librarians feel that such discussion often tends to be superficial, open discussion should challenge one to think more carefully, and it should be preceded and followed by some reading and study. Unfortunately it does not seem to engender much study. The extent to which staff time and therefore salary funds should be devoted to initiating, guiding, presiding at, teaching staff members and other citizens how to lead and participate in group discussion is widely questioned. Are public libraries under obligation to plan and manage public discussion? A great deal has been done by many librarians, through letters, phone calls, personal suggestion and encouragement, at slight expenditure of time and with no special organizational setup or salaried position, but by a little forethought, to make scores of organizations aware that their discussion meetings will be welcomed under the library roof (if it has any meeting room), that the librarians will gladly help prepare programs as well as references on discussion topics and that the library greatly desires that these programs shall lead to reading and study.

The point of these paragraphs is that a prime library objective is at stake. If group programs divert the time of a staff that cannot do justice to book and informational service, it would seem only fair to postpone them, except by way of encouragement to meet in the library.

Many libraries which complain of inadequate personnel are neglecting purposeful readers because part of the staff and the budget is absorbed in group and audio-visual programs, which they apparently consider the most

important aspect of "adult education." As a medium for continuing adult education nothing yet developed is so effective as books and reading. In a large western city library with administrative leadership so weak that it received less than fifty cents per capita, one of the ablest of the few trained competent and vital staff members was transferred from essential adult informational service to give full time to audio-visual and group programs, even though patrons coming for book services were grossly neglected. In 1961, of the forty largest libraries, twelve were spending from 17 per cent to 25 per cent, one of them 32 per cent, of their inadequate "books and materials" budgets for audio-visual material; no doubt the related salary costs were in proportion.³⁴ The resulting neglect of main-line services in such situations is criticized by many librarians, who do not for a moment claim that printed materials are the only media for transmitting knowledge.^{35, 36}

Librarians need not become obsessed by social, economic and citizenship problems, which comprise only a segment of the legitimate interests of a community. "A world in revolution does not permit us to delay," said a librarian in 1946; but fifteen or twenty years later the world appears even more in revolution. Obviously libraries should emphasize contemporary problems, and have increasingly done so, such as through the "Great Issues" and "Goals for Americans" programs, and in a multitude of ways. But alertness of libraries to public problems is only one among many perennial obligations, even admitting that not all subjects are of equal importance. The time-consuming lengths to which some librarians would go to accomplish social changes through library programs for the aged, for example, are discussed by Barnett under the heading "Beyond Librarianship."³⁷

Confusion as to Adult Education

In cooperation with other agencies, the librarian should encourage the citizens in his community to study and discuss current problems. Reading and study are essential to any profitable discussion. They are adult educators, too. Our point is that a library's own boundaries of activity and responsibility have limits; its leaders should place first emphasis on their major service. Obviously the library staff must try to know what is happening today, and why, and foresee trends and be leaders of their community into a better next year. In its positive educational influence the library and the librarians cannot be aloof from community affairs and thinking; they should participate in the major community council.

The public schools and colleges in many cities and towns have been America's free and democratic meeting place for public discussion, and many of them are sponsoring discussion meetings.^{38, 39} Librarians can encourage this. "Hundreds of thousands of adults are joining reading classes

each year . . . due . . . to the greater demands for competent reading that present-day life makes on an increasingly large proportion of our population." The U.S. Office of Education estimated 35 to 40 million adults enrolled in classes for 1961-62.⁴⁰ Most of these classes are held in public school, college or university extension buildings. A vital part of library philosophy is a warm regard, active support and systematic cooperation with the American public school system, which does not spring from or foster religious, social or economic distinctions, is controlled by locally chosen citizens, and is giving renewed attention to the mentally gifted and to basic intellectual studies. The library will not neglect other schools and educational enterprises.

A Renewed Conviction That Books Are Educators

The temptation to spread out too widely and superficially has diverted many librarians' attention from the needs of the great population which looks to its libraries for individual service and printed informational, cultural and inspirational help, which only the public library can give. As Schick and others have pointed out,⁴¹ the demands for this from the adult public give every indication of accelerating. Many librarians need to regain their basic conviction that their books, reading and study services are of surpassing social and educational importance. The present programs and performance of many libraries do not reflect a steady determination to promote these ends. Libraries may profitably emulate the paper-manufacturing company which initiated the prize-winning series of full-page color advertisements "Send Me a Man Who Reads," which ran in national magazines of 1960-61. These reported that high-salaried leaders in various fields, and college scholarship winners, are reading far more than the less successful persons in their fields—"Men who read more achieve more," and "Reading is often a mainspring to leadership."⁴²

Librarians have the responsibility of such leadership, to persuade their communities as to these basic values and to encourage high purposes and ideals and not to be swayed by powerful clamor to do the superficially popular thing, or to buy and circulate destructive but popular books.

The tremendous growth of good reading by children, even during the last thirty years, has been greatly influenced by the library profession, but also by the book trade and by Frederic G. Melcher, its long-time leader and a library enthusiast. He was the moving spirit in the Boy Scout reading program and its outgrowths Children's Book Week and National Library Week. He gave and publicized the annual Newbery and Caldecott Awards to stimulate better-written and better-illustrated books for the young. When librarians feel discouraged and wonder what can be done to improve situations, they may profitably consider what the conviction, determination,

enthusiasm, resourcefulness of one person can accomplish in what, in Melcher's case, seemed at first a very indifferent world. Librarianship today needs a Fred Melcher for Adult Reading.

OBJECTIVES LEAD TO PROGRAMS

A summary of the foregoing objectives and functions leads to the more definite programs in the next chapter:

1. To cooperate with all other constructive educative agencies toward higher goals, and as a secondary function to capitalize on the educative values of radio, TV, movies and other mass media, because the library is primarily an instrument of self-education.

2. To provide as service center, more than as storehouse, the printed and allied materials, the dangerous, exciting and conflicting ideas, for all the community to weigh and to use for information, self-development, enlargement of knowledge, appreciation and enjoyment of life and the attainment of high ideals.

3. To see that the individual is reached and served, perhaps through his group connections, to encourage him in his self-chosen thinking and endeavor, to help him draw from books the inner strength to meet and endure the pressures from society around him, and to carry out ideas from which he may derive satisfaction.⁴²

4. To discover and help the talented and gifted at all age levels, and in all the stages of their growth and progress, and to show the undistinguished and unnoticed too how the library can help them.

5. To combat all attempts at censorship, thought control, authoritarianism and class, race or religious prejudice; and to encourage the open mind and respect for individuals regardless of their status.

6. To plan and program library activities and staff assignments in proportions that emphasize basic functions and to postpone secondary activities until primary book, informational and intellectual services are adequately financed and efficiently operated.

7. To see that the library, in all aspects of its planning, tries to keep abreast of current problems and the needs of society and the community.

GENERAL REFERENCES

Out of the literature on public libraries and their objectives, we suggest three general titles as especially interesting and significant:

1. Robert D. Leigh, ed. *The Public Library in the United States*. 272 p. 1950. Columbia Univ. Press. This is the summary report of "The Public Library Inquiry," a three-year objective study of all aspects of the subject, made by a group of social scientists. Its conclusions have been influential.

2. William S. Learned. *The American Public Library and the Diffusion of Knowledge*.

89 p. 1924. Harcourt. o.p. Still valid as an educator's stimulating interpretation of his careful inquiry into the operating and services of many libraries. Emphasizes their potential value in constructive cultural and social progress.

3. Nelson B. Henry, ed. *Adult Reading*. 279 p. 1956. (55th Yearbook, Nat'l Society for the Study of Education. Part 2.) Univ. of Chicago Press. \$4. Ten meaty and interesting chapters by nationally known specialists, such as Asheim, Gray, Schramm, Dale, Houle, Witty. Priority reading for those intending to promote greater library use by adults. See also Cyril Houle, footnote 42 below.

FOOTNOTES AND SPECIAL MATERIAL

4. Gerald Johnson. "Role of the Public Library"; introduction to *Public Library Service*. A.L.A. 75¢. 1956. By a widely known author and interpreter of American life.

5. NBC's newsmen Alex Dreier, July 13, 1958, marking the opening of the Annual Conference of the A.L.A.

6. Leonard D. White. *The Federalists: a Study in Administrative History*. 1948. Macmillan. p. 6.

7. J. Periam Danton. "Plea for a Philosophy of Librarianship." *Library Quarterly*. 4: 527-551. Oct. 1934.

8. Life (Chicago). *The National Purpose*. 146 p. 1960. Holt. \$1. paper.

9. President's Commission on National Goals. *Goals for Americans; Comprising the Report . . . and Chapters Submitted for Consideration . . .* 372 p. 1960. Prentice-Hall. \$1. paper. Contains a series of recommended "Programs for Action in the Sixties."

10. Frank L. Schick, ed. *The Future of Library Service: Demographic Aspects and Implications*. *Library Trends*. v. 10, no. 1, p. 3-67, July 1961; no. 2, p. 71-286, Oct. 1961. No. 1 on Population Trends. No. 2 a symposium of 17 papers on major aspects of public, school, college and special libraries and what seems to be ahead for each. A study of unusual consequence for policy and planning. See also Robert O'Brien, "The U.S. in 1970; Forecast of Things to Come." *Reader's Digest*. 78: 25-29, Jan. 1961.

11. *Wilson Library Bulletin*. 36: 87-88. Oct. 1961.

12. Lowell A. Martin. "Library Service to Adults." *Library Quarterly*. 25: 1-14. Jan. 1955. Reviews recent trends as well as accomplishments. It notes that recreational reading service is an essential part of a well-balanced library program.

13. This bulletin contains much information beyond that implied by its title. The 1955 figure for comparison comes from note 15, below.

14. *Public Library Service: a Guide to Evaluation, with Minimum Standards . . .* 74 p. 1956. A.L.A. \$1.50. Supplemented by *Costs of Public Library Service in 1959*. 15 p. 1959. 75¢. (Prepared by A.L.A. Public Libraries Division. Co-ordinating Committee on Revision of Public Library Standards. In references below, this publication and its supplement will be referred to by short title only.)

15. Rose Vainstein. *Statistics of Public Libraries: 1955-56*. (Chapter 5. *Biennial Survey of Public Libraries: 1954-56*.) 102 p. 1959. U.S. Office of Education. 45¢. p. 25. Reports a circulation of 489,519,000 from only 6,153 of the 7,871 libraries questioned: the Library Services Branch estimates that full returns would have brought the total above one half billion. Subsequent annual statistical tables, including one for 1960,¹³ justify the estimate for 1960. *Publishers' Weekly* had a mailing list of 9,000 public libraries in 1961.

16. *Publishers' Weekly*. 180: 26-27, July 17, 1961. See also Robert B. Downs. "Books Are Here to Stay." *A.L.A. Bulletin*, 51: 665-672. Oct. 1957.

17. "Latest Gallup Figures," and "Why Do We Lag?" *Publishers' Weekly*. 171: 61. May 27, 1957.

18. Robert B. Downs. *Molders of the Modern Mind: 111 Books That Shaped Western Civilization*. 396 p. 1961. Barnes & Noble. \$6.

19. *Publishers' Weekly*. 179: 22. Jan. 2, 1961. For later estimates see P.W. 179: 20-24. March 6, 1961.

20. *Ibid.* 177: 11. May 23, 1960.

21. Gordon G. Dupee. "Can Johnny's Parents Read?" *Saturday Review*. 39: 5-7, 34. June 2, 1956. See also George Gallup. "You Can't Get Ahead Today Unless You Read." *Ladies' Home Journal*. 77: 44+. Aug. 1960. Also Mary C. Austin, et al. *The Torch Lighters: Tomorrow's Teachers of Reading*. 191 p. 1961. Harvard Univ. Press. \$1. "The Harvard-Carnegie Reading Study" aims to make reading play a much greater part in teacher-training. Also *The National Interest and the Teaching of English*. 149 p. 1961. National Council of Teachers of English. (Champaign, Ill.) \$2. A nationwide study of the status of reading in the curriculum, the causes of shortcomings and their improvement, including reading promotion. Also Nelson B. Henry, ed. *Development in and Through Reading: 60th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*. Part 1. 406 p. 1961. Univ. of Chicago Press. \$5.

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23. Mrs. James C. Parker (National President of P.T.A.). *N.Y. Times*. May 24, 1960.

24. *Reader's Digest*. v. 76. March 1960. Inside front cover. For a quick summary of the influence of books on many famous persons including some still living, see the 26-p. Chapter 5 of Donald A. Laird. *The Technique of Getting Things Done*. 310 p. 1947. McGraw-Hill. \$4.95. See also footnote 41 below.

25. Samuel Simon. "Looking Back Is Forward Looking." In Wayne S. Yeuawine, ed. *Library Evaluation*. 46 p. 1959. Syracuse Univ. Press. \$1.50, paper. p. 30-46. Cites pros and cons on an expensive group and A-V program in a library which cannot afford enough books or trained informational staff to meet reader demands.

26. See Errett W. McDiarmid. "Crusade for an Educated America." (President's address.) *A.L.A. Bulletin*. 42: 289-293. July 1948.

27. John Wakeman. "Greatest Challenge." Editorial. *Wilson Library Bulletin*. 35: 252. Nov. 1960.

28. Thomas Finletter. Quoted in Benjamin Elkin. "Are We Trying to Do Too Much?" *Illinois Libraries*. 42: 192-193. March 1960. See also William H. Whyte, Jr. *The Organization Man*. 429 p. 1956. Simon. \$5. Also Henry M. Wriston. *Academic Procession*. 1959. Columbia Univ. Press. p. 192-194, on a college president's struggles, "against all the pressures . . . in the other direction," to provide students the opportunity for a "private life of the mind."

29. Ralph S. Ulveling. "Lose Not Our Greatest Strength." *Iowa Library Quarterly*. 18: 242-246. Jan. 1961.

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31. Besides numerous books for educators, such as Ruth Strang's *Helping Your Gifted Child*. 1960. Dutton, see *The Pursuit of Excellence: Education and the Future of America*. (The "Rockefeller Report" on Education). 49 p. 1958. Doubleday. \$1.00. Also "Emphasis on Excellence," in *Carnegie Corporation of New York Quarterly*. 7:

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38. Marilyn Russum. "Adult Education: Cinderella of the Sixties." *Saturday Review*, 44: 58-59. May 20, 1961.

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CHAPTER 2

A Program to Serve the Whole Community

In a sense the daily task of the librarian and staff is to compete for the time and attention of all the men, women and children in the community. Each may be helped by materials and services of whose value to him as an individual he is scarcely aware. This is in sharp contrast to the idea that the librarian is only a selector, a custodian or even the servicer of printed and allied materials. It is a challenge to reach beyond the present service circle. This chapter title may be called unrealistic, for probably 30 per cent of the population in any community are too young, too old, mentally undeveloped, irresponsible, or lacking in ambition and intellectual curiosity ever to be candidates for any educational or cultural service whatsoever. If they do have the inquiring mind they evidently have not discovered that reading is their best way to find the answers.

But this still leaves a great segment, perhaps 25 to 40 per cent of the population, especially among adults, which does not yet use the public library but could be encouraged to read, study and seek information on their multitudinous personal interests. Most of them now have more leisure hours than work hours. They await the library's move to make them sufficiently aware of how they would benefit. To draw this great unreached additional segment into the circle of library use is priority Item 1 in any library's program.

Many librarians think that elaborate statistical studies of what and why people do or don't read, and of local population characteristics, should provide a "scientific" basis for formulating plans and for better selection of books and materials.^{1, 2} It is not clear how or whether any library has integrated into its planning the extensive community or reader data already gathered at considerable labor and expense.³ In the last few years A. L. A. has been active, with foundation funds, in making library-community studies. But they seem not to have led to even a handful of action plans except as relating to group services and discussion, though we have several recent policy statements.⁴

Many librarians feel that elaborate statistical studies either of the community or of its readers and nonreaders can have no great effect on library planning, and argue that any practical program should aim to meet present clearly evident high-priority needs and obligations, including a large-scale continuous campaign to promote greater adult use. Yet successful business concerns make elaborate studies of customer reactions and preferences, whereas knowledge about citizen motivation and response to books and reading is woefully insufficient.

We will take up these matters, first as to knowing the community, second and briefly as to a policy statement, already discussed in Chapter 1, and third, suggestions for formulating a program of action to make the library serve more fully. These logical aspects of administration are closely related.

UNDERSTANDING ONE'S COMMUNITY

Interest in and knowledge of the local community's character breaks down the library's ivory-tower walls. It deserves staff time, study and discussion. It is more than a sentimental gesture to suggest that a library worker with any imagination should walk around his community, preferably with a knowledgeable companion and with open eyes and mind, get acquainted, read the local newspaper, become involved in its affairs and progress, and meet the persons who run the town, and minority group leaders, in contrast to studying too many statistics.

In the light of our present lack of knowledge of what motivates library users and non-users, community studies may become far too detailed and consume too much time, because we are not sure what information to seek or how to apply the data.⁵ Little will come of elaborate data unless translated into action. For example, precious days have been spent on studies showing what is obvious, that borrower patronage thins out as distance from the library increases. Little is gained by repeating this time-consuming customer check. What to do with the interesting data and maps?

Yet it seems logical that librarians should try to know considerable about the community they serve. There may be available a fairly detailed brief printed historical and descriptive account, including recent developments, perhaps with comments on local school, cultural and civic activities, and major business and industrial enterprises. From the latter flows the stream of income which feeds the growth of nearly everything in town, including the library's budget. The living, working, shopping, commuting and leisure habits and viewpoints of city, suburban, village or rural people are of interest. A third of the nation, for example, now lives in suburbia, which has its own characteristics.⁶

Population Data

Cities "on the up" present a very different possibility for library support and development than those where production, building, employment are on the decline and people are depressed and tax-conscious. The librarian has to be aware of changes in the character of population in his community.⁷

The Public Library Inquiry of 1949 showed that college graduates use public libraries about four times as much as people who have been only through grade school. While the very high economic-level families use their libraries less than do the great middle-income group, the latter use libraries three or four times more heavily than the low-income group, despite the efforts of libraries to enlist all levels as readers. Professional and managerial people, students and white-collar workers make greater use of the library than do other occupational groups.^{8, 9}

The latest census and special reports may show income per family, the percentage of the fourteen- to eighteen-year-old group that is in school, the median number of school years completed, and the per cent of population which has completed high school or more.¹⁰ These figures are seldom up to date and they do not cover communities of less than 25,000. It is difficult to get data coordinating current population counts, current incomes and current educational backgrounds; all constantly change and are not reported simultaneously. Fairly realistic current estimates on per-family income and population, for cities of over 10,000 population, are found in the current *Survey of Buying Power*.¹¹ Chambers of commerce, or public health officers, or the school board office, may have local population estimates, such as percentage of high school graduates going on to college (when 70 or 75 per cent continue their education it is a sign of a community where library use should be high).

But when findings turn out to be discouraging, e.g., low per-family income, poor educational background, one needs to reinterpret the data constructively, with determination to step up the library's impress on the community, rather than take a defeatist attitude. Dirty steel cities, with populations overwhelmingly from uneducated backgrounds, have seen circulations steadily pushed up to five or six per capita. Baltimore, self-conscious about its discouraging cultural statistics ("this is not a reading city"), doubled its circulation in two years, 1926-1927, while the proportion of nonfiction in total adult circulation has steadily risen from 25 to 52 per cent, 1926-1956. Perrysburg, Ohio, with 5,000 population, which many librarians consider too small to be served efficiently by an independent library, increased circulation 250 per cent from 1949 to 1959, while population increased only 35 per cent; a new library building was started and finished, and 89 per cent of the population were drawn into the circle of registered borrowers.¹²

Factors in Community Makeup

A recent A. L. A. handbook³ discusses coverage and organization of a local study, sources of data, questionnaires and interpretation of the information as a basis for planning a library's adult group program. It can be adapted to include children's and young adult's needs. Adult organizations are foci for information seeking, they are media for action and goals toward which a public library's planning should be aimed.¹² But no less so are offices, factories, stores, business and industrial enterprises, hardly noticed in this A. L. A. study.

FUNCTION OF THE POLICY STATEMENT

There are enough facts, situations, problems in and about each community, known to librarian and trustees, and there is enough current literature on what libraries nationally are doing in each aspect of the work, to make it incumbent on a library's officers to draw up a brief statement of policies as noted in Chapters 1 and 6, and a program of intended action. The policy statement,⁴ which should lead to a program, may be developed under such headings as: general objectives; who may use the library; library services; materials; personnel; staff and board and librarian relationships; relation to public officials and financial support; cooperation with other libraries; bookmobile service; branch libraries; physical facilities; gifts and public relations.¹⁴ Under some of these headings considerable detail may be useful. For example, to forestall group and neighborhood pressures and clarify censorship questions, it may be wise to include A. L. A.'s Library Bill of Rights and its Freedom to Read statements.¹⁶

COMMUNITY FACTORS IN A PROGRAM

When some understanding of one's community has been gained, certain major age, occupational and interest groups are distinguishable; these provide objectives for the action and service program. The program will be influenced also by standards and by discussion as to how other libraries organize and operate. Librarian, staff and trustees need to discuss and formulate their own program, put it into writing, and periodically review and amend it. It will not be carried out in a few weeks but step by step. If presented as a one-year or a three-year or a five-year plan, it will imply that results are intended. It will affect the staff's organization, range of activities, general ideas of book selection, the proportions and emphases of the various services and promotion therefor. It will recognize the library's

role as a treasure house of materials, its role as promoter and extender of books-and-materials use, and its role as suggester, guide and helper for the individual.

Program by Age Groups

Such a program will provide for definite actions aimed at informing and attracting such age groups as are here briefly noted in chronological order:

1. Preschool and school children; directly and in cooperation with parent groups and with more and better school libraries; closer understanding of school objectives and methods (Chapter 21).

2. High-school-age young adults; special attention by workers prepared to understand, attract and serve them, as to school and individual interests (Chapter 20).

3. College students, during four years or more of higher education. Perhaps their required reading is being handled effectively, but for their personal specialized potential needs the librarian who is perceptive and can make stimulating suggestions may have as much influence as a good professor in encouraging students to follow up on their own ambitious curiosity in new fields.¹⁶

4. The new adults, including the seventeen-twenty-one-year-olds, just out of school and college, getting started in new jobs and homes, with related new interests and responsibilities. Berelson found them using libraries considerably more than their elders, much less than children or teenagers.¹⁷ Though busy with their problems of job, homemaking and rearing children (and 40 per cent of the twenty-twenty-four-year-olds move each year),¹⁸ they are responsive to citizenship duties, are keen and critical on current events and local civic, school and social questions, and are interested in indoor and outdoor hobbies and recreations, and in mind-broadening subjects.

5. The great population of more mature years, perhaps from thirty to sixty-five, more settled, less frequently moving, beginning to slow down in ambition and intellectual curiosity, slower to take up new interests. As potential library customers this 40 per cent of the population receives meagre attention, though many would respond to general, continuous publicity.

6. Senior citizens, or the "Golden Age" group, i.e., over sixty-five, now nearly one-tenth of the population, often lacking objectives for happy and useful retirement, and feeling useless and unwanted.¹⁹ New planning, new methods, new funds, new studies of this partly-captive audience, might lead to accelerating the reading ability-and-enjoyment potential of the younger adult and middle-age groups to develop new interests, so that before retirement they might find meaningful and rewarding hobbies or avocations that involve reading.²⁰

Local Schools

Nearly a third of the population is enrolled in school and college. The library staff should know (a) how the local curriculum compares with the national pattern as to the proportion of time given to such substantial

subjects as reading, composition, mathematics, science, civics and history; (b) the local compared to national proportion of high school students who go on to college; (c) per-capita public school support; (d) the emphasis on reading in each of the twelve grades; (e) the local school library situation in some detail, especially as to which schools have a full-time trained librarian; and (f) current objectives, problems and accomplishments.²¹ All this leads to a program on which library and school can work closely together, as noted in Chapter 22.

PROGRAM BY OCCUPATION CATEGORIES

Most persons from twenty-one to sixty-five are engaged in some paid occupation or in homemaking, but it cannot be assumed that most of them wish to read about their jobs. Even in skilled trades most job reading is done by supervisors and by the occasional beginner concerned to get and keep a job.

Executive and middle-management leaders are more extensive job readers;²² there is increasing corporation emphasis on management reading. A considerable proportion of secretaries, clerical workers, accountants, and a larger proportion of the operators of business machines and paperwork equipment, read about their jobs, in addition to their general reading. But those engaged in any occupation may be far more interested in reading on a great variety of other subjects than about their jobs. This is especially true of "blue collar" workers,^{23, 24} as yet little reached by libraries; suggestions are available from A. L. A.'s Joint Committee on Service to Labor Groups.

PLANNING TO REACH SUBJECT INTEREST CATEGORIES

The interests of most citizens center around a few major subjects such as:

Home and Family: house, garden, furnishing, decoration, family living and financing, babies and child care, school and development of young people. It is estimated that 55 per cent of U.S. adults live in homes with children under twenty.²⁵ P. T. A.'s are only one of many active groups to work through.

Citizenship: social, political, municipal problems in the community, state, nation and world. Increased awareness by the average citizen of problems abroad should lead to increased citizenship efforts by the library. Developments closer to home, such as taxes, improvements, sanitary problems, parking call for up-to-date information to arrive at conclusions.²⁶ On many current problems books are too lengthy and too late. Current news stories, magazine articles and public affairs pamphlets encourage adults to study, discuss, understand and register opinions on today's affairs.

Cultural: Librarians can promote new enthusiasm for the humanities. They are surprised to note the number of readers whose intellectual curiosity leads them on through history, travel, biography, literature in its various forms, art and music, languages, philosophy, psychology, natural history, popular and even technical science.

NANCY*

By Ernie Bushmiller



A reminder of the respect due the skilled and unskilled workers who do important jobs, but don't necessarily read much. (By special permission of United Features Syndicate, Inc. Copyright 1959.)

Religious: Recent reawakening of interest in religion and the churches suggests that librarians could be more aware of current religious trends and of the various categories of religious books that pour forth.²⁷ Clergymen need to know about library materials for sermon preparation and pastoral work. There is also the reading of the Bible as literature and as a portrayal of human nature. A public library, neutral, can distribute annual committee-selected lists of books for Protestant, Catholic and Jewish readers. Many nontheological books also, such as biographies, build spiritual and ethical strength, high convictions and purposes.

Recreational: Libraries can provide information on indoor and outdoor recreations, e.g., motorboating and watersports. A good approach is through sports clubs and equipment dealers. Too, there are the indoor leisure hobbies—shop work, handicrafts and collecting, such as stamps and natural-history specimens.

Local History: Few other subject interests have grown so rapidly in popularity since 1940 as has local history, and many citizens can be attracted to study and know some aspect of their local background; suggested action is discussed in Chapters 19 and 27.

The foregoing cursory résumé offers a basis for more specific planning to serve in ways that will promote community progress and the durable satisfactions of life.

WORKING THROUGH ORGANIZATIONS

Libraries have made great progress in group contacts, stimulated by the adult education movement, and the A. L. A.'s Ford-financed Library-Com-

munity Project of 1955-1959. Most of this effort has been aimed at film forums and discussion programs,²⁸ but these same organizations can in most cases be the means also for spreading book and informational service publicity (discussed in Chapters 9 and 30).

How much time and salary can the library afford to spend on contacting, and how far shall it go in this group service, and in what ways? The distribution of library publicity through organizations is the main element in increasing book use. Contacts for this important purpose, such as form letters, require comparatively little time or expense but considerable care in wording; the follow-up on each has to be planned to consume the least time.

PROGRAM FOR MATERIALS

A program should aim at certain results as to public use of materials, and therefore as to fair proportions in spending for the collections (See Chapter 27.) Per-capita circulations of six or eight are common, occasionally of ten or twelve in smaller libraries. Granting the library's obligation to supply good fiction and other recreational reading, a library's circulation should run more than half adult (because this includes most book use by high school students), and less than half juvenile. And its adult nonfiction circulation should be brought above half of the adult total. Chapter 27 discusses book-budget proportioning. By formulating policy and then a plan, a library can withstand pressures to ban or remove books which run counter to a group's racial, political, economic or religious views. It will also program the encouragement of gifts of specially needed books or the money to buy them.

PROGRAM FOR BUILDING THE STAFF

A program should set up the steps to attain a staff chosen uncompromisingly for "quality first"—well-educated, trained and able, as discussed in Chapters 12 to 14, and 16. The program should assure that in a staff of only eight or ten there will be someone especially qualified on children's service, someone on cataloging and preparation of books, someone on adult circulating book services, someone especially prepared for reference work and if possible someone to understand and work with young adults. It should describe the steps needed to reach a proper balancing of the various aspects of the work.

PRESENTING THE LIBRARY'S PROGRAM

Any such programs are scarce indeed, and of policy statements there still are not many. A few programs are incorporated in survey reports, but there are few subsequent statements from the libraries as to which survey recommendations have been approved and carried out.²⁹ A library with a definite two- or five- or ten-year plan, prepared by staff and trustees, and well publicized, will make far more headway than libraries which simply run along in the groove. This may be reinforced by announcing, each New Year's, a program of specific actions planned. New Haven's 1959 annual report listed a program of twenty-nine proposed actions.³⁰ Doubtless this planning influenced the 40,000 increase in nonfiction vs. 17,000 increase in adult fiction circulation, in 1959-1960. The 1960 report listed seventeen: six "immediate and specific," four as to the book collections, four as to staff, including increase in professional grade salaries and creation of a career clerical service, and three as to buildings.

After such a program has been carefully developed by heads and staff and put in writing for board study and approval, it should be sent to local public officials and publicly released. This is an important message from the library, to be phrased and publicized to make everyone aware of what is under way; in its preparation many trustees will discover a new interest in library affairs. It should frankly explain the steps planned to put it into effect: changes in organization and staff, new or modified services, plans for acquiring needed materials, and how it is all to be financed in annual budgetary steps. By this notification the library board puts itself one up in getting attention and help for its endeavors.

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3. Library-Community Project Headquarters Staff. *Studying the Community: a Basis for Planning Adult Education Services*. 128 p. 1960. A.L.A. \$2.50.
4. Ruth M. White, ed. *Public Library Policies—General and Specific*. 109 p. 1960. A.L.A. (*Public Library Reporter* No. 9.) \$2.50. The most important single source. See p. 3 and 7 for A.L.A. censorship statements. See also Rose Vainstein and Marian Maag. *State Standards for Public Libraries*. 85 p. U.S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1960, No. 22. 25c. These standards help to formulate policies. One of the earliest policy statements issued to its constituents appeared in *Reorganization of a Large Public Library: Ten Year Report of Enoch Pratt Library 1926-1935*. p. 147-151, under 8 headings, supplementing policy statements on book selection, p. 10-23, and on refer-

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CHAPTER 3

The Administrative Viewpoint

Any library improves when the purposes, planning, methods which underlie all its operations and services are understood and shared by all. Then each assistant finds more enjoyment and result from his work, and shares the sense of responsibility and the satisfaction that his library, branch or department is constantly growing more effective in reaching its goals. Department heads, first assistants and the others who share executive duties and have a definite responsibility for some unit of work, or supervise the work of at least a few assistants, have an obligation to understand and exercise the administrative function in their respective areas. But persons who may later move up to larger administrative responsibility also need to be prepared by developing a perception of what goes on.

When a person visits any going concern—store, office, school, manufacturing plant—he may wonder, “Who is in charge here? Who is running things?” Someone gets paid to make the broad decisions, assume the leadership, bear the responsibility, provide the overall thinking and the guiding hand to keep the organization running, to tie things—people, ideas, operations—together at the top. In a library this administrative function rests primarily with the head librarian, but it should proportionately be shared by all those staff members who in turn supervise and guide the work of others.

Even in a one-man library, where one person has to do everything, the administrative viewpoint is essential. Consider the numerous books and courses on “household management,” wherein the housewife discovers that planning, evaluating family goals, and analyzing and laying out the day’s work and good kitchen equipment can lighten and add zest to her days. Planning and direction are basic in all enterprises. In a library every new assistant needs to learn, as soon as possible, what its purposes are, and the part his department and particular assignment play in attaining the library’s objectives.

WHAT ADMINISTRATION INCLUDES

Intelligent library assistants often wonder what administration means. It means essentially the directing that gets the job done. It involves: Comprehending purposes, needs and opportunities. Planning, defining problems, making decisions, finding ways and means, managing and following through. Organizing; or recognizing and defining, then putting together in sound and simple relationship the component elements or divisions of the operation as a whole, then of its smaller parts—departments, and individual jobs. Selection of personnel; the understanding, choosing and appreciation of people and their development. Assigning work according to abilities, with judgment and consideration in fitting them together. Defining responsibilities and lines of authority. Giving instructions. Supervising; the guidance of those for whose work one is responsible, seeing that each does his work with distinction. A special phase of supervision, calling for greater attention than it has usually been given in libraries, is the development of assistants as individuals, giving them opportunity and recognition. Scrutinizing and evaluating, and measuring results, in terms of reader satisfaction, with attention to costs.

Under "administration," one also inevitably thinks not only of its processes but of certain aspects wherein the administrative function is greatly involved, such as: the governmental connections of the library, partly through the board of trustees; its relations with other municipal departments and officials; the financial structure of the library and the sources for securing adequate funds, their budgeting and use; public relations and the methods by which the library keeps the entire community aware of its purposes, problems, services, accomplishments, and maintains constant awareness of what the community thinks of its library. Librarian and department heads, for example, have to be constantly concerned as to what part of the work most needs added personnel, how to present the case and translate the need into dollars, and conversely whether each dollar in the present budget is being spent most usefully.

LEADERSHIP

Today, four important administrative aspects of librarianship deserve special attention: the *organization*, the *supervision* and the *measurement* of activities, methods and services, for efficiency, for reader satisfaction and for economy in operation, and the *promotion* of library use, for use can be greatly increased with little added proportional cost, and everyone benefits. The public which is borrowing more than half a billion public library books a year would be gratified to know that librarians everywhere are concentrating on these aspects of their jobs.

What is required to take charge of a piece of work, a department, an activity or a library is the ability to lead. This involves not only technical

competence, but broad intellectual outlook, social intelligence, the simple ability to perceive what things mean when one sees them, honesty, a real liking for others, and courage to assume and carry through responsibilities. Some reasons why subordinates fail to be promoted include: unwillingness to assume responsibility, inability to direct and lead others, too little initiative, lack of imagination or creativeness and faulty analytic ability. Much has been written on "control," but less on the factors in leadership—having convictions and practical ideas, imagination to make new approaches and to see new possibilities, and the power, judgment, character, tact to persuade other individuals and groups to accept one's proposals. It is individuals possessed of convictions, courage and forcefulness, rather than machinery or organization, that shape the future. Promptness in selecting, ordering and getting new books on the shelves is a great stimulus to good service; every form of promptness raises a library's status and morale. A library or department head needs to have a daily concern about such things, and provide the leadership to break down inertia and find solutions. "People can be placed in three classes: the few who make things happen, the many who watch things happen, the mass who have no idea what has happened. . . . The leader reaches the state of mind that something must be done and, therefore it gets done."¹

Human Relations as Part of Leadership

Leaders in industry, business and public administration have become aware that the earlier efficiency methods, the mere mechanisms of management and the use of business machines do not suffice for best results. Attention to the individual, the employee, the customer and the overhead personnel, and to their collaboration, is of paramount importance in building high morale and reaching the goal. This is now seen to be a part of the general revolution in industrial relations, in which union participation, multiple management and the democratic approach reflect currently prevailing attitudes, all stemming from concern over the human relations involved.

Staff members wish to earn enough to live comfortably, with a feeling of security in their job. But they also want self-respect, friendliness, a chance to grow and to contribute their best, with recognition. For most persons the daily round of work is their major life activity; it can be made pleasant and stimulating. What were acceptable employee relations thirty years ago are such no longer, because in all occupations the natural feelings of the individual are more respected now.² Librarian and board have to exert themselves to secure just treatment for the staff, and to make each member feel that he and his work are worthwhile. Unionizing may not make much headway in librarianship, but library workers, like schoolteachers, are entitled to the same protection that union members secure by weight and pressure of numbers, from unfair salaries and schedules (e.g., failure to in-

clude library staffs in municipal pay raises, in pension provisions, etc.) and from administrative ineptitude, overbearing, intolerant and inconsiderate control, and the like. The short supply of librarians does not permit old abuses; it requires trustees and librarians to remedy internal weakness, and to find the courage to press for the library's welfare.

A good librarian or department head is aware of staff problems, not only in a general sense, for example that salaries may be subnormal, but that Miss X is acutely unhappy over certain personal problems of finance, or that Miss A and Mrs. B do not hit it off, and that one must be transferred to another assignment so both can work without tension. A good librarian or department or branch head trains himself to notice; he cannot ignore such matters. He provides incentives and morale builders; he finds ways to break up the crystallizing of status groups or cliques in the staff. He tries to sharpen his own power of perception, does not feel too busy to bother and does not hesitate to stir up something in order to cure a bad situation.

Executive thinking is the life blood of any successful enterprise. It animates an organization, giving it form and purpose. Its inspiration flows into a library's departments, into its operations, into the minds of its personnel, and shapes the library's progress.

Those who plan library and departmental activities have to cultivate this ability to think creatively, to see, define and solve problems, to encourage staff imagination to find new and better ways. They encourage and ponder suggestions. But first they have to pull themselves and their colleagues out of the prevalent habit of seeing everything only in terms of what goes on today in their library. The overall view of the whole library, rather than of any single aspect or department, has to be cultivated constantly. Someone, the head, has to think of entirely new possibilities. He can seek and listen to strange and even startling suggestions from his colleagues, or borrow them from other fields. To speed up his own imagination he may read such books as Alex Osborn's *Your Creative Power, How to Use Imagination*, from which the following is taken: "In the average person, judgment grows automatically with years, while creativity dwindles unless conscientiously kept up" (p. 59). "The judicial and the creative moods tend to clash. The right mood for judicial thinking is largely negative. 'What's wrong with this?' . . . 'What's the out about that?' . . . 'No, that won't work.' Such reflexes are right and proper when trying to judge. And we need a negative attitude for caution such as: 'Beware of it—it's too new' . . . 'Are we sure that this won't be a mistake?' . . . In contrast, our creative thinking calls for a positive attitude. We have to be hopeful. We need enthusiasm. We have to encourage ourselves to the point of self-confidence. We have to beware of perfectionism lest it be abortive. Edison's first lamp was a crude affair . . . he could have junked the whole idea. He didn't. His first electric lamps were better than candles, kerosene lamps, or gaslights—so he introduced them. Then he went to work on improvements.

"Dr. Suits of General Electric has declared the positive attitude 'a characteristic of creative people.' He urges: 'Form the habit of reacting Yes to a new idea. First, think of all the reasons why it is so good; there will be plenty of people around to tell you why it won't work'" (p. 91). The value of radical new viewpoints and thinking, in industry and business, has resulted in systematic provision for "brainstorming" sessions in many large concerns; some pay high-fee outside consultants to sit in with their own executives and think out loud in such sessions.^{3, 4}

A Practical Approach

Imagination and creative mind have to be tempered by a modicum of practicality. Librarians and department heads profit most if they improve the methods and results of what they are already doing, rather than jumping off into greener fields of new activity. Anyone with imagination, applauded by associates, and financed by public funds, can have a glorious time hatching new enterprises, new methods, new records, all of which sound exciting and impressive. Administrative ability includes the vision and judgment to see the possibilities of a good new idea and to support it, but also to put it in its proper perspective with the true and tested and timeworn, which also deserve active attention and support. Frequently when a library's methods are very expensive, it is recommended that a system of cost keeping be set up. The result will be more salaries to keep cost records. Instead present personnel, assignments, supervision, work methods are what need the study. Usually, everyone knows local costs are too high; in general it is because no one has cared about methods, or how to simplify them, or how workers are supervised. When the viewpoint changes and becomes practical a better remedy than cost keeping is soon found.

THE LIBRARY'S MORALE

Visits to libraries show great differences in administrative interest and abilities of librarians and department heads. Among a hundred administrative heads well and favorably known in professional associations some seem almost oblivious of essentials such as those just enumerated. Having eyes, they see not, though things may be at sixes and sevens.

A librarian who decides everything by himself and dominates all is prone to think that everything is fine, whereas if his colleagues were encouraged to express their opinions they might not only disagree with these complacent views but could offer practical suggestions to improve the library. One librarian, after developing a library to a high point and departing for a larger field, left a staff, services and morale widely recognized as outstanding. But an able successor immediately embarked on a program of self-

analysis by department heads and a reorganization to rectify certain weaknesses already apparent. In such a case the staff is continually stimulated by the knowledge that their library is on its toes, trying to improve itself.

Administrative Inattention and Morale

No one need be a student of psychology to know that in a progressive and superior library staff morale will be at a high level. Everyone thrives. Each has a sense of self-development. When one enters a well-run school or factory or library, even though poor in funds or housing, there is a general atmosphere of well-being, an awareness that things are being well directed and running smoothly, that those who work there are busy, happy and effective. One who visits many such buildings with a mind attuned to their spirit is acutely conscious of these factors as soon as he enters. There are libraries where the spirit of the staff is at such a high point that patrons and visitors constantly remark on the situation. The satisfaction of the whole staff and of the community and the taxpayers, in the high status of such a library, is a civic asset.

Administration is evidently weak and neglected in libraries where the staff's chief concern is not with its best and constantly improving service to readers, but with job classification, the stepladder ranking for promotion and salary increases and such questions as "Just what does Miss X have that I don't have?" or "Why should Miss A be promoted or have an increase when I have been working here longer?" Leaders of the job-holding element of the staff may have become dominant and diverted attention from the progress of the library to their selfish personal interests. "A group . . . were discussing the rights . . . of personnel . . . the little problems that plague the life of department heads . . . the demand of a new . . . assistant for a daily free period in an exceptionally busy . . . library . . . the problems of night assignments . . . of securing staff who would work Saturdays, the frequency of coffee breaks, and various . . . details of fringe benefits. . . . Many points were referred to as rights. . . . One supervisor asked: 'What are the rights of the institution?' A legitimate question."²

In many libraries, department heads and first assistants are promoted for length of service or because no more able candidate is found in the small group available, and no effort is made to seek further for a better one. So the quality of service is lowered. Such an appointment to a headship is proof of the breakdown of the administrative function of a board which is too timid to leave the easy path of promoting someone next in line, or yields to pressure from local opinion or individuals, or fails to understand the importance of the work and the qualifications demanded. A notable library can within five or six years deteriorate into mediocrity, strangling itself through inadvisable appointments and promotions.

The acute frustration which many college-trained library assistants suffer

may be due in part to their awareness that those in charge think lightly of these administrative duties. Some of their chiefs fail to help them build a constructive appreciation of their own value and the value of their work, though admittedly some assistants suffer from the lack of any satisfying personal philosophy to start with. Good administration takes pains to understand individual staff members, and sees that such a philosophy is defined and promoted throughout the staff.⁶

Justified Satisfaction

Certain psychological factors in library work induce corroding smugness. The competitive spirit found in business and industry is largely missing. Few measurements or incentives such as sales and commissions make even a potentially efficient person aware that any certain output or quality of service is an obligation upon him. Some assistants coast along on their feeling of prestige, especially in a new or notable building or where staff leaders are highly regarded in the community. They assume that everything is excellent. Students of public administration recognize the prestige and the social security that go with most public positions, and there are trustees and public officials who delude themselves that this status adequately offsets a meager salary.

A good slogan for any library staff is: "We have not found the best way to do anything yet." This challenges every method, the work of every person; it raises questions and objections and encourages suggestions that lead to improvements. A carefully arrived-at decision that seems to assure better services and conditions will need new study after a time, in the light of new developments, to push the goal still higher.

For example, a librarian who has trained himself to be observant realizes that money is being thrown away by poor management in the catalog department. It is in the doldrums for lack of direction and supervision. He has to take the initiative and appoint a new head, who in turn studies the basic problem, viz., continuous accumulation of books, delays in getting even important new books to the public, poor work assignment with professionals typing all their cards, disinterest in method study and resulting low morale and apathy. Tactful discussion by the new head with the staff clarifies the needs; their concern becomes mutual. They work out together the changes needed. The librarian, passing through the department each day, soon notes that the accumulation of waiting books is melting away and, that new titles are put through to the readers in a day or two, to the gratification of all concerned. Moreover, he sees a new spirit born within the department, a new sense of accomplishment, a breeze of new ideas. Everyone, led by an able and inspiring department head, has had a part in this transformation, which brings justified satisfaction.

In some libraries special care is given the selection of assistants, including

clerical workers, who meet the public at general service desks. Selection is based partly on their appearance, attitude and manner, but first on having a high IQ and the ability to grasp details and carry on their work with real devotion. They must also possess attractive, well-integrated personalities and enjoy their day's work. They are given definite instructions to meet the reader with a smile and to show some interest in him as a person: the reader is due this consideration. It is foresight rather than luck, if a library has a public service staff reputed to be the smartest, friendliest and most attractive in the town, as well as the most capable. Readers show by their expressions that they note and are proud of staff quality and spirit.

Enthusiasm

A widespread enthusiasm among the staff adds to its satisfaction and to still better service. It is worth cultivating at all levels by seeing that the staff shares in the thinking, decisions, progress of the library as a joint endeavor, and in its sense of purpose and achievement. A great man, former president of The Carnegie Corporation of New York, who was instrumental in approving grants of millions of dollars for library progress, was described by an associate: "I have never seen a man with greater enthusiasm for work or greater joy in the doing of it. He would arrive at the office in the morning full of excitement that the day's work was about to begin. That excitement and enthusiasm never waned, even though we often worked until eleven or twelve at night. His tremendous interest in the humanitarian job the Board was doing was no doubt partly responsible for his attitude, but beyond that, it was manifest that any job he undertook would be approached in the same spirit. The work was important; it was appealing, but the act was a part of living. Somehow that attitude was communicated to the whole organization. Each member of the staff seemed to feel that all were partners in a great and thrilling enterprise."⁷

THE VIEWPOINT THAT THINGS CHANGE

Books on management emphasize change as fundamental to the progress of any institution or business; this appears especially true in libraries. They are prone to cling to old ideas as well as methods, overlooking the saying "When we're through changing, we're through." "Perhaps more than any other function of local government, the free public library of today is intimately linked by tradition, by custom, and even by law, with its historic backgrounds. . . . While libraries have been increasingly liberal in the development of their services to users, the various authorities responsible for their management have been immensely conservative in their reluctance to alter the traditional forms of library organization."⁸ Discussion with the

boards of more than a hundred libraries about organization, finances, functions, services and administrative problems, as well as about library building plans and exterior designs, has revealed that on all these aspects of library affairs librarians and trustees have almost invariably been, as Joeckel says, intensely self-satisfied and conservative. They resist change. They permit months and years to elapse before they get up courage and ambition to act.⁹

But someone has to decide what changes are sound. When a trained but insufficiently experienced director is appointed, a general desire to change may result in some changes that have calamitous after-effects. This may happen with a librarian overly conscious of the library's newest ventures and services, often plagued by over-organization, partly encouraged by inflation or by some news-hungry reporter, or oversold by enthusiasts within the staff or among the profession. So many improvements and advances are needed in the methods and services of every library that the administrative job is to find and promote worthy ideas, passing over unessential. "Miss B was in the midst of so many changes her staff couldn't take it, and she decided to postpone other changes for three months." These changes were long overdue. Miss B, a successful administrator, moved up to two much larger headships within the next five years partly because she could choose vital from unessential proposals and tactfully interest her staffs in putting them into effect soundly. Stagnation may continue in the most important aspects of the work in a library or department whose head explores showy and attractive by-ways, with the conviction that doing anything new is necessarily an improvement.

Let Go of the Past

Willingness to "kiss the past good-bye" does not mean superficially craving change in everything. It means challenging and re-evaluating everything from fresh viewpoints. A distinguished head of branches, traveling to a convention had as seatmate the head of branches in another city. Discussion of branch problems seemed a common bond, but as it progressed this latter supervisor continued to pass over all the aims and methods which various other libraries were developing, and to confine his remarks entirely to what his own library was doing, and how. From what might have been a most enlightening conversation of some hours, with a national authority on branches, this supervisor carried away not a single new idea, for he worshiped the past and present in his own library; there everyone was painfully aware that instead of being a leader he could be only a retarder.

"Sensitivity to obsolescence of ideas and methods, as well as of building, books, regulations, services, is an important mark of a good administrator. Such things as blind worship for the L.C. catalog card, burdensome circulation records, inventories, etc. often lead to loss of many costly man-

hours. Adaptability, in the interests of economy and service, is a unique and almost 'grass roots' responsibility" (Nathaniel Stewart).¹⁰

But, Know the Background

All this is consistent with knowing and appreciating what has gone before. Continuity has many virtues. Without a sense of historical values assistants and department heads miss the sequence and significance of the story of their library or department up to now. Every librarian, even in the small library, is a better one for reading Whitehill's *History of the Boston Public Library*, Harry Lydenberg's *History of the New York Public Library*, David Mearns' story of the Library of Congress, *Up to Now*, or especially Margery Quigley and William Marcus' *Portrait of a Library*, which narrates Montclair's problems and development. Unfortunately we have nothing by way of administrative histories of smaller libraries. Any new librarian or department head with so little perception and sense of proportion that his self-confidence rushes him into decisions, policies and programs without studying what his predecessors have done, and why, reveals himself as inadequate, as well as inconsiderate to these predecessors and to the colleagues left behind to work with the new man, among whose virtues humility is always well regarded. "They who forget the past are in turn themselves forgotten" (Santayana). If "what's past is prologue," a new head can fortify himself for the days ahead by scanning recent department or library reports and other records, at least the recent ones; by talking with those who know the story; and by perusing the library scrapbook of news stories, if there is one. This may pay rather richly in relationships with the whole staff, the trustees and the community.

Too Long in One Position

Long familiarity in an executive or administrative position, can lead to convictions, attitudes and mannerisms which grow more fixed with the years. Such persons may be aware of and sensitive about their predicament. The higher the position and the longer the service in it, the harder it is to make a change or give up. This problem, not peculiar to libraries, has consequences sometimes disastrous to the public service, most of all when the incumbent makes policies and appointments on which the happiness of others depend. This is not always best rectified by retirement. It may call for a reassignment, with less responsibility, sometimes with less salary. The viewpoints of all concerned must be given generous consideration by the others, including impatient and critical assistants. What will be their solution, when their own time comes?

APTITUDES INFLUENCE VIEWPOINTS

Because so many join the profession on account of their knowledge and love of books, and believe in the power of books and reading as a social force, or because they enjoy working helpfully and constructively with the great variety of other persons who use or work in libraries, the proportion is small which from the beginning foresees and prepares for executive and administrative work. Good library administrators are in short supply, not because administrative ability cannot be developed but because so few have prepared themselves. In all professions and in industry and business, the literature is voluminous on how to discover and develop executive ability.

A Flair for Management?

Many an able library assistant has declined better-paying positions as administrator because he lacked self-confidence. After repeated pressure and opportunity he has finally taken over some department or library as its responsible head, and considers he has not done too well. But this results in many cases only from lack of preparation. Most college and library school graduates, with intelligence and two or three years of job experience, should be able to take such responsibility, provided they take heed to developing executive and administrative thinking and action. While a library worker is busy as an assistant he can be observing and absorbing administrative methods around him; he will do well to avoid critical evaluation and attitudes which becloud the issue, but will analyze the problems he sees and try to understand the background, the pros and cons of decisions and solutions.

As one of the best writers on this subject has said: "There seems to be a widespread belief that executive skill is a God-given attribute. It is something that you have or you haven't. . . . There are a limited number of essential executive qualities which are doubtless in the nature of a birth-right. . . . But between those individuals who have these few qualities in great measure, and those who do not have them at all, there lies the much larger number of individuals gifted in moderate degree. These are the persons whose progress may suffer because of the notion that executive technique is a matter of a sixth sense, an intuitive faculty which defies explanation, a 'hunch' which always tells the right thing to do at the right time. These people tend to close their minds to their problem."¹¹

Liking to Work with People

Because librarianship is thought of by many as a "bookish" profession, it has been asserted with some purported proof that a large proportion of the

personnel attracted to it are introverts, and introverts are supposed not to be so good at getting along with others. Whatever core of fact these ideas may have, a librarian can overcome such handicaps by determining to think more about the interests and welfare of his associates and less about his own; to find and draw out the good and the positive factors in those with whom he works, their viewpoints, enthusiasms, and abilities; to avoid suspicions, such as imagined slights, which so often are unjustly held against one's associates; and to put all his effort into improving his library, especially his particular part of it, and to forget himself for part of the time anyway.

Wholesome and enjoyable relationships are so rewarding that one owes it to oneself to cultivate them, for example by studying two or three among the many good books on the subject, and by developing an understanding and appreciation of others, thereby dissipating that timidity which like a curtain of fog gets between persons who might otherwise enjoy companionship in the work. He should seek opportunities, in small and then in larger ways, to participate in work with others and then in guiding or directing the work of others. The good librarian or department head sees that promising assistants have such opportunities. But he will hesitate to promote to administrative work anyone who obviously does not like others, is suspicious or quarrelsome, or insincere, or inconsiderate, or who seeks an out for his own shortcomings by complaining of "conditions."

Librarians as Bookmen

Despite the disinterest of a small segment of librarians who have come into the work without any particular conviction that books and reading are basic to good citizenship, it is probable that most librarians have been drawn to the work because of their belief in the power of books and reading. This book is written with the belief that persons who have little background of reading, book love and book knowledge have no place in professional librarianship.

A book lover and student or scholar may have great administrative interest or ability. The best librarians are those who combine these two interests, as hundreds of cases prove, including nearly all the illustrious forty leaders summarized in the "Library Hall of Fame."¹² Numerous cases also prove that scholarly book love can go with high administrative ability in other fields, as in the case of Henry C. Folger, the Amherst Phi Beta Kappa, intensive Shakespeare student, and president and then board chairman of Standard Oil Co. of New York from 1911 to 1928: "By sticking closely to business . . . I have found the means for adding to my collection of Shakespeareana until it is perhaps . . . the largest and finest in the world," now available to all men. His remarkable story makes clear Mr. and Mrs.

Folger's unusual knowledge of Shakespeare, his writings and his times, and their complete understanding of what they were doing in collecting and organizing a great library, and in preparing to give it to the nation.¹²

"I Don't Like Details"

An unfortunate attitude, incompatible with good administration, is sometimes phrased "I don't like details!" With this blind spot in the center of a librarian's thinking he will inevitably neglect some of the essentials, particularly the awareness of what is going on, and any scrutiny of the methods and results of the work of those to whom he delegates responsibility. One such librarian preferred community contacts and built up a personal publicity resting on a shaky foundation. Within four or five years his best department heads left one by one, for he did not like their knowing more than he, and he was ignorant of what was going on. Naturally they did not respect him. Eventually he was rightly evaluated by his trustees, who asked him to resign. "Technical interest and excellence is a goal for which the administrator should strive. Heads strong in human relationships and understanding of broad problems should not use these to camouflage lack of technical expertness." (Nathaniel Stewart.)

Management in most libraries is working management, and as in most competitive business it is keenly interested in just what goes on, in materials and methods and in the men who use them. The notion is only fallacious that one can sit back at a desk, always cleared, refer everything to someone logically supposed to attend to it, listen like a judge to the infallible ideas, reports and recommendations of a group of colleagues who in such an organization are often regarded as subordinates, and come up with the right decisions. It tends to encourage a relationship in which the top person does not know the meaning of what he has to decide, while the next in line are deprived of the understanding they crave. Often they present a poor case in a favorable light in the hope that the chief will not know the difference.

Some library administrators have been appointed with less administrative training or experience than they would have wished. They have realized that all the techniques or details cannot be delegated to someone else, often referred to as technicians or processors. They have spent time and effort in mastering these details, and have thus avoided over-organization, inflated paperwork and positions, wrong decisions on problems of method. So they have saved their libraries from any incubus on the budget, have hastened progress and prevented decisions which over the years could continue at great expense until rectified. Their staffs do not feel frustrated, but respect these chiefs because they have made a business of understanding what goes on instead of sailing along in the clouds or putting up a big front.

Inside or Outside Preferences

It does not generally prove successful when, instead of meeting his responsibility to his institution as an operating service medium on which depends the satisfaction of hundreds or thousands of patrons, the head spends too much time, thought and emphasis on outside activities that give him a sense of importance. This is not to imply that an inside administrator is superior to an outside administrator; both have their points, and a well-balanced combination is the ideal. A person realizing his own strength in one direction may become more valuable by improving himself in the other. A department head highly competent in reference services and book knowledge, but shy and reluctant to make community contacts, because she "disliked publicity and promenading," was persuaded to venture forth and talk to groups about her department. She was surprised to find that she enjoyed it; she forgot her shyness in her enthusiasm to have people know about library services.

We have referred above to former President Keppel of The Carnegie Corporation, a loyal friend of libraries, whose contacts with men of affairs as well as with educational and cultural leaders were world-wide and uniquely happy and successful. "Of his exceptional cerebral equipment, he was unsparing. His habits of industry would have been gratifying to those late apostles of diligence, Dr. McGuffey and Horatio Alger. With a modicum of respect for those exemplary folk whose desk tops are consistently clean and clear, I rarely saw Keppel's that way. And with limited genuflections to those who bear from their offices no bulging brief-cases and burn no midnight bulbs, Keppel—at least in the era covered here—got his results by wrestling tons of homework."¹⁴ A 1958 survey showed that 68 per cent of management leaders take work home with them at least one night a week and 55 per cent have some office equipment at home to handle this work.¹⁵

Florence Nightingale, great because of her indomitable purpose and her remarkable managerial ability that aided her humanitarian purposes, referred to another's "administrative power, that power of detail that makes works succeed and is called capacity for business. . . ." The "downright lovers of hard work . . . attending to and managing the thousand and one hard practical details which nevertheless plainly determine the question as to whether your sick and wounded shall live or die."¹⁶ These quotations encourage the conscientious head who thinks details can be both significant and interesting.

True, much more time and attention than is now the case in most libraries should be given to making outside contacts for the library and its services, "outward motion toward the community, instead of inward toward processes," as discussed later. This knowledge of what goes on inside, and attention to utilizing book resources, can be brought to a high degree of efficiency, and then community contacts will be sincere and fruitful. True

also that better planning and delegating help accomplish far more in the available time¹⁷ as discussed in Chapters 6, 10, 11.

SOME NEGATIVE VIEWPOINTS

Several attitudes are found among librarians, as in other fields, which slow down the work, rob the individual of part of his effectiveness and decrease his own inward satisfactions in what he does because they lead to conflicts in his own thinking.

Men or Women

The propaganda to get more men rather than women into the profession, and the belief on the part of some library boards and some new librarians that women are not such good administrators as men, or not so good on community contacts or in working with politicians, seem to have slight justification. By 1957 more than a million women occupied executive positions in the U.S.¹⁸ There are too many examples of highly effective women librarians, successful both as leaders of their own staff and of community groups and enterprises, and in dealing with public officials, and too many examples of men appointed to leadership positions who lack the most important qualifications therefor, and are held in little regard in their own circles, to support this idea. Some of these men have come into the work without much conviction of a calling for it, and have little background of book knowledge, or of library operation or management, but because they are men have been advanced too rapidly and have failed to build up their ability.

We are not contending that women are superior to men, but that women can be as able administrators as men. It seems logical to let the supply of men and women adjust itself naturally, to consider potential executives on their personal merits, for library boards to be under no illusions as to the greater value of a man over a woman for headships of large or small libraries, and to look upon discrimination as inexcusable. The same delusions and problems plague other business and professional occupations.¹⁹

Self-Esteem

Self-pride influences administrative viewpoints unless the executive puts his mind on his institution, on the happiness of his colleagues, on the quality of service, instead of on himself. If he begins thinking of his empire, of what a fine manager or public figure he is, he fails to see that his associ-

ates are contributing as much as or more than he, he fails to see that they get as much credit as he, he fails to recognize that he is getting into a bad relationship with his staff, his job and himself.²⁰ Some of his staff won't care, for in library work the great majority have a zealous interest in what they are doing for its own sake. Quite someone to contend with, at any level, is the person who from conformity, or awe of power figures, tends to swallow everything from higher-ups and expects all the lower-downs to swallow him and his ideas.²¹ Jealousy, possessiveness, false goals, ambition, exhibitionism and self-pity are traits which are tied to self-esteem and self-concern.

Self-pride, a manifestation of personal inadequacy, may also take the form of an inexcusable reluctance to use the ideas of others, partly because others may get attention and credit, partly from fear that people will think he himself doesn't know the answers, and from fear of new ideas themselves, unless cleared through his own brain. Many otherwise promising persons in this category fail to be promoted. An executive with such fear, self-pride and small-minded hope that no one else will get too much credit or limelight can find little enjoyment in his work.²² Just the opposite administrative viewpoints conduce to peace of mind.

Temptation to Drift

Many assistants move up to department headships and to librarianships, blessed with fine qualities and eager to tackle the new and larger work with visions of long-needed changes and improvement. But one discovers in a few short years that some of these young executives have slowed down, or backed down, or are lying down, in the face of the problems which every executive has to meet and overcome. Their convictions and determination seem to have faded out, and they may become "flabby at forty." Old-fashioned courage, resolution and tenacity have plenty of opportunity in any library enterprise. Physical courage is strikingly portrayed in Heyerdahl's *Kon-Tiki*. But the introductory chapters which narrate the personal, official, psychological obstacles the author battered down, one by one, before this unique expedition could push off from shore are fully as inspiring as the adventurous trip by sailing raft across the lonely Pacific. Good administrators need this courage to take chances, to burst a button now and then, to crawl out on a limb in order to accomplish something important.²³ The "just so" philosophy of safety first and above all sometimes takes the form of such long deliberation, so many conferences, such a fixation on having every last detail foreseen and settled, that nothing gets accomplished. It is a good administrative viewpoint that library leadership is a high and enjoyable adventure, each day filled with new problems to surmount. It is gratifying to know librarians who are willing to lose their job or give it up (worse

things can happen) in behalf of what they think important principles which involve the library's welfare.

THE LIBRARY WORKER'S OVERLOAD

The deluge of words and tensions, the everyday pressure of a far too heavy normal load of work on most library workers, all put a strain and health hazard on the profession.²⁴ Visitors to libraries and to library conventions often remark on the zeal and intensity with which library workers carry on day after day, submerged in a great variety of interests, often working too long hours; they do not admire professional colleagues who arrive and leave by the clock. "I get more enjoyment out of my job than from anything else. If I want to work seventy hours a week and have no family to suffer from it, why can't I enjoy myself?"

The amount of work has less effect than its strain and pressure, its frustrations, frictions and contact adjustments, as doctors and psychiatrists testify. Administrative duties such as supervision, interviews, conferences, even when one enjoys the contacts, absorb much nervous energy. More remedial health programs have been developed for industrial workers than for executives, though Metropolitan Life Insurance Co. studies show the latter's life expectancy is 10 per cent shorter.

Hypertension and artery and heart trouble more frequently cause death than formerly, and attack a younger group than ever before. This holds true also in a profession which laymen imagine is a rather quiet and favored one, full of leisure and "time to read"! High-pressure individuals are found in most libraries and contribute greatly to library progress, but the head should assign someone to remind those prone to overdo to take time off, to get a change from work to play or to relax somehow. And someone should look after staff health, ventilation, lighting, posture, lunchrooms and washrooms, and schedules that permit eating at reasonable times.

Absorbing Too Many Duties

Too much talk consumes untold time and energy; part of it goes with too many conferences, as discussed in Chapter 6. But most librarians are eager beavers; many keep throwing one more burden around their necks—working on too many professional committees, taking active part in too many local organizations, and undertaking too many new enterprises within the library. Bettering the service in fields already undertaken, rather than embarking in new fields, would seem less likely to overwhelm already busy staffs. Before undertaking new ventures they should be assured of more help and cut off present unproductive activities. It may be true that administration means delegation, with work divided and carefully assigned among

others down the line; theoretically the library, branch, department head should have little if any more to do when new activities are added up. It doesn't work that way, except in the rare cases where a staff is not already trying to do too much, and all its members have the ability to do well their present duties and also the new ones, and the intermediate heads are not overloaded with work and responsibilities already delegated to them. The librarian of the smaller library has the perennial problem of assignment of too much to too few, and the common failure is in not fighting, sometimes while he says he's too busy to fight, for more helpers and added positions to correspond to the growth of work, and for better salaries to keep present workers.

ENJOYMENT IN THE WORK

Library and department heads, like managers in business, have the opportunity to build up among their own staffs and among the widening circle of library users a wholesome attitude toward the satisfactions of daily work, whatever or wherever it is. Negative conclusions that the individual will become less and less significant, submerged in conformity, beaten by the machine, can be counteracted by librarians and department heads who themselves have a strong conviction of the usefulness of their service to society, a keen interest in finding better ways of doing things, and in developing staff members' own satisfactions in the work. Such a staff inevitably transmits to readers some of the feeling, or "climate," of a positive, satisfying philosophy. An aroused and sustained intellectual curiosity is itself a powerful incentive to constructive activity, occupational initiative and good leisure use. Such results are not achieved except by constant planned attention to bring them about. Librarianship includes a very large proportion of persons who work with this same tireless pressure, devotion, courage, persistence and enjoyment. In general their public knows and appreciates the fact, though seldom does the public realize the demands on the typical library staff.

GENERAL REFERENCES

Profitable readings for developing constructive administrative viewpoints, include, in somewhat the order of their usefulness, the books by Erwin Schell,¹¹ Joseph G. Mason,⁸ Alex Osborn⁹ and Melvin T. Copeland.²²

FOOTNOTES AND SPECIAL MATERIAL

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2. A rewarding symposium: Edward C. Bursk, ed. *Human Relations for Management, the Newer Perspective*. 372 p. 1956. Harper. \$5.75. See also Harold J. Leavitt, *Managerial Psychology*. 335 p. 1958. Univ. of Chicago Press. \$5. Also, Thomas G. Spates, *Human Values Where People Work*. 246 p. 1960. Harper. \$4.50. Feelings and experiences at all levels.
3. The brainstorming method was originated by Alex Osborn. See various passages in his *Your Creative Power*, now in paperback. 1961, rev. ed. Dell. 50¢. The foregoing page references are to the original edition. See also his *Applied Imagination*. 379 p. rev. ed. 1957. Scribner. \$4.50. 12th printing. 1960; over 100,000 copies sold in various editions.
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5. Ruth W. Gregory. "Do We Really Need More Librarians?" *Wisconsin Library Bulletin*. 55: 99-100. March-April 1959.
6. See Pauline P. Wilson. *College Women Who Express Futility*. 179 p. 1950. Teachers College, N.Y. \$2.75.
7. F. D. G. Ribble, in *Appreciations of Frederick Paul Keppel, by Some of His Friends*. 125 p. 1951. Columbia University Press. p. 92.
8. Carleton B. Joeckel. *Government of the American Public Library*. 393 p. 1935. University of Chicago Press. p. 1.
9. David M. Wright. "The Administrative Fallacy." *Harvard Business Review*. 38: 113-114. July-Aug. 1960. Discusses the delusion that when affairs are running without friction and through proper channels they are necessarily running well, whereas human relations, methods, results may be far from good.
10. Undocumented quotations from Mr. Stewart and several other librarians are from typed unpublished suggestions generously made by them.
11. Erwin H. Schell. *Technique of Executive Control*. 8th ed. 357 p. 1957. McGraw-Hill. \$5. p. 8. One of the most stimulating and profitable books for every librarian.
12. *Library Journal*. 75th Anniversary issue. 76: 466-472. March 15, 1951. See also Mary L. Bundy and H. Womack, "Librarians as Readers." *Illinois Libraries*. 42: 427-435. Oct. 1960. Results from questionnaire study of 116 trained library workers: most interesting. See also references in note 1 of chapter 5.
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17. Carl Heyel. *Organizing Your Job in Management*. 208 p. 1960. American Management Association. \$5.25. Of the more practical sort, for everyday situations.
18. Frances Maule. *Executive Careers for Women*. 2nd ed. rev. 240 p. 1961. Harper. \$3.95. See also Margaret Cussler. *The Woman Executive*. 165 p. 1958. Harcourt. \$3.95. The latter is based on a survey made by the National Federation of Business and Professional Women.
19. See publications of the National Council of Women in Education, c/o N.E.A., Washington. Also F. C. Dyer. "Myths about Women Bosses." *Supervision*. 21: 18-20. June 1959.
20. See Charles F. Thwing. *The College President*. 345 p. 1926. Macmillan. p. 261, and 149-151. This and his *Guides, Philosophers and Friends*. 476 p. 1927, Macmillan,

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21. Eugene E. Jennings. "Causes of the Boomerang Effect . . ." (of conformity). *Journal of American Society of Training Directors*. 12: 19-24. May 1958. Fifth of six articles on conformity.

22. Donald K. David, in Marvin Bower, ed. *Development of Executive Leadership*. 130 p. 1949. Harvard Univ. Press. o.p. p. xxi.

23. See the valuable chapter "The Spirit of Risk-Taking," in Melvin T. Copeland's *The Executive at Work*. 278 p. 1951. Harvard Univ. Press. \$5.00. Also Alex Osborn *op. cit.*

24. "What You Can Do About Stress." *Nation's Business*. 46: 34-35, 90-95. June 1958. Also A. Scott Powell. "Conditions Take Their Toll." *Library Journal*. 76: 751-754+. May 1, 1951. Also Chapter 11, "Organizing His Own Job," in Mary C. H. Niles. *Middle Management*. Rev. ed. 1949. p. 186-215, emphasizes ways to avoid strain. Also William P. Shepard. *Executives' Health Secrets*. 268 p. 1961. Bobbs, \$4.95. By the Medical Director of Metropolitan Life.

CHAPTER 4

The Library Board

The progress of the public libraries of America rests officially upon their boards of trustees. More than nine-tenths of these libraries, i.e., approximately seven thousand, are governed by boards composed of lay trustees. Of the few libraries with no boards most are in manager-council cities, where the city manager pre-empts the place of a board; these libraries seem to do as well as those with boards. The various legal forms of governmental direction over library and librarian are detailed by Joeckel.¹ Most states have a pamphlet compilation of their library laws, especially as to control. Many students of municipal government consider library boards to be anomalous. Library boards stand high in public esteem, and most librarians consider them a real help. Many librarians feel that a board is as much a necessity for the library as for the schools. But librarians and city managers in California (where city manager form of government is prevalent) agree in recommending that library boards be abolished or made advisory.² Kroll, a political scientist who surveyed libraries in the Pacific Northwest, has the same idea.³ The future of the board form of library government will depend on the effectiveness with which trustees handle policies and serve their libraries' interests, take more progressive attitudes, are more active publicly in advancing library objectives, refrain from interfering with management and avoid politics.

Beside Mrs. Winsor's valuable *Handbook*,⁴ two other books, one of whose joint authors is a political scientist, have lengthy discussion of library trustees from other viewpoints.^{5, 6} Assuming that trustees and librarians will have read the foregoing material, at least the Winsor book, this chapter discusses factors and relationships which bear more directly on administration and operation.

BOARD FUNCTIONS AND RESPONSIBILITIES

Librarians, assistants and readers often overlook the fact that the board of trustees, whatever its name, is legally the library itself. The various state

laws, municipal ordinances and charters or constitutions, create the board of trustees as the responsible body to hold and administer library property and funds and to formulate policies and guide the direction of library's affairs. Trustees appoint and pay librarian and staff and delegate to them the necessary authority to manage and operate the library, yet the board as an official body, with its legal powers and responsibility, continues to be the ultimate authority indefinitely through all vicissitudes and membership changes. A librarian may be able, conscientious, successful in transforming the library into something far better than before, but officially he is only the board's agent, holding office at its pleasure and carrying out such policies and instructions as it sanctions. It cannot relinquish or evade its final responsibilities for everything which pertains to the library, its purposes, policies, functions, organization, services, funds, its governmental and public relations, its expenditures and costs, its standing in public estimation and its continual improvement. To this end every new trustee can get a good start by reading the *Winsor Handbook*⁴ and *Public Library Service*.⁷

The reason why boards should take their assignment seriously, why trustees have to be courageous, able citizens, and why there is imperative need for board-librarian cooperation becomes evident when one scrutinizes a board's actions to see whether it actually does the things that it seems generally agreed a board should do:

1. Assures the general efficiency and progress of the library. (Boston's legally required citizens' Library Examining Committee looks into this.)

2. Maintains good relations with local governments and secures the interests of the library in the overall governmental organization and financial structure, in local planning and improvements.

3. Weighs financial needs by national library standards, such as the A.L.A. per-capita standards of support, sees that these needs are convincingly presented to the public and to the appropriating authorities and perseveres until the standards are attained.

4. Understands the functions and qualifications of a competent librarian, finding and appointing him, giving him a free hand in administrative matters, evaluating his leadership and supporting or dismissing him, but meanwhile helping him to overcome weaknesses.

5. Considers, formulates and decides on policies, especially those initiated and presented by the librarian, in the light of adequate evidence.

6. Understands the functions and qualifications of the staff at its different levels, supporting the librarian in finding and appointing a staff of high quality, and in securing an adequate salary scale.

7. Keeps in touch with the organization and activities of the library in co-operation with the librarian, without interfering with management, but reminding him on matters he may neglect, and through him measuring results in services, costs and reader satisfaction.

8. Enlarges public and official understanding of the library, its purposes, problems and progress, so that its public relations may be fruitful.

9. Understands, questions, has a voice in matters which affect public opinion and relations, such as service to readers, finances and operating costs and staff welfare, and places on record its decisions as to the policies involved in such matters, but leaving administration, the implementing of the board's policies, to the librarian and staff.⁸

A Working Partnership

Paid to be concerned with all these matters, the librarian shares this responsibility with the board. In some matters the board has the greater responsibility and makes the major decisions; in others it is the librarian. In small-town libraries with part-time or untrained librarians, the board naturally plays a larger part in decisions and details than in a large city organization with professional staffs. Actually, what is "policy" and what is "administration" is a policy question itself, and the board has to decide it; but it should be clarified when the librarian is first appointed. With responsibility and decisions must go authority, and lines of demarcation are needed as to the areas each is to cover; the logical place to define these boundaries is in the by-laws of the board. The chief administrative problem or privilege for the board-librarian working partnership calls for mutual respect and frankness. The librarian will foresee and formulate needs and policies, marshaling facts and opinions pro and con, and presenting his own recommendations in such a way that the trustees will support him, and he then follows out their decisions. Within a generation municipal governments and officials have moved into the picture by setting up requirements which greatly affect library operations, as noted by Hamill.⁹

The librarian rightly keeps in close touch with the board president and executive committee chairman, goes over problems and agenda with them, gets to know the trustees individually, and sees that they visit library departments and branches, know their operations and staffs, and gain real knowledge of what the library is doing. He has to educate each new trustee and the whole board as to what the library is all about. He gets a chairman's approval to call meetings of a committee, distributes minutes of the last meeting in advance of the next and prepares data to answer probable questions from the board.

The board has an obligation to question and to expect the librarian to produce data and reasons for his ideas and recommendations; these can be refined and strengthened through discussion with a committee of the staff. Trustees, with a wider range of experience and attitudes, serve as the librarian's sounding board, help him think aloud, whet his mind, and still leave him full administrative freedom so long as they have confidence in him.¹⁰

Munro emphasizes that the board "should never interfere with the routine or in the details of management. Having chosen a competent

librarian it should expect him to exercise the initiative, do the work, and assume the responsibility for it. . . . In this matter of a clear division of functions everything depends upon the choice of a competent librarian. The selection of this official is the most important function that a library board has to perform."¹¹

When either trustees or librarian feel that antagonism, or lack of faith, or grievances are growing up between them, a special session of frank discussion to compose their differences may be profitable. Unless the board intends an ultimatum or dismissal, it should review mistakes or shortcomings of the librarian in a manner to help him and give him confidence to rectify them. The board may well also hear his version of the situation and his grievances as to viewpoints, actions and failures of the board, which may be as much at fault as the librarian. Often these difficulties result from too-long association, with personal idiosyncrasies and hobby ideas beclouding the issues, evidence that neither librarians nor trustees should hold the same position too many years.

There is a point beyond which a self-respecting librarian is not willing to go in permitting board interference with internal administration; library literature reports such cases, including resignations of the librarians, much less frequently than they occur. Yet librarians as well as school superintendents and other administrators realize the great value of the specialized knowledge which many trustees can contribute. It is regrettable that few communities have any idea of the time, skills and judgment which their library boards contribute without receiving even a thank-you.

Qualifications of Trustees

Only a paragon could meet all the specifications drawn up by many writers as to trustee qualifications. A good board is developed by selecting persons not because of trade, profession or religion, but because they have shown ability for leadership and for accomplishing worthwhile things, are devoted to the conviction that reading, study and information seeking are vital community habits, are willing to work, even against opposition, to push the library ahead and are ready to stand up against political and public pressure and criticism. Members with poor attendance and showing little interest, yes-men and troublemakers, should be passed over, and if they get on the board should soon be asked to resign. The major compilation of state standards for public libraries says not a word on standards of qualification for trustees.¹²

Library control should not be kept in the hands of lawyers, businessmen, old and notable families, the clergy, the bookworms and literati. There is a tendency among "those who have arrived" to take themselves more than seriously; they are reluctant to draw in new persons, no matter how

promising, from outside their own social and economic circles. They think the library is safe in its support and standards of service only as it is kept in their guiding hands. Yet civic life strengthens by fresh blood and fresh views. "More teachers, engineers, technicians, labor organizers, farm bureau officers, and public administrators, are suggested alternatives to the present concentration of lawyers and businessmen."¹² Indiana laws, at least, require that women be included on library boards.

Age and Tenure Factors

The marked conservatism of library boards, noted by all students of library government, is aggravated by too-great average age and too-long term in office. Joeckel¹³ in 1935, Schick¹⁴ in 1948, and the Connecticut Library Survey¹⁵ in 1948 showed considerably more trustees seventy and over, than under forty. Long tenure makes worse this patently detrimental situation. In studying the affairs of more than a hundred libraries and conversing with their boards, the writers have found situations that cried aloud for replacing trustees who were no doubt conscientious, able and devoted to the library, but were far beyond retirement age, some in their dotage, some hanging on four or five decades and not for years contributing a new idea, some dozing through meetings and admiring the *status quo* fondly and complacently. Age may bring wisdom, but it may also substitute for the judicial frame of mind a smugness and a reactionary reluctance to change the pattern of things; it shrinks from struggle with public officials.¹⁷ "Indefinite reappointment . . . leads to dry rot so frequently that it should be forbidden." "Retired business men are not good school board members."¹⁸

Two conclusions emerge, in line with trends in school and public administration:

1. Seldom should persons older than sixty-five be offered or accept a library trusteeship; on reaching this age, unless within two or three years of the expiration of a term of not over five or six years, they should give up their membership to younger persons. One good library "appoints none over 45 and prefers the 30's." *The Public Library Inquiry*, 1949-50, indicated that the majority of adult library users were in their twenties and thirties; they should be represented. "The age of greatest trustee efficiency seems to be from forty to fifty."¹⁸

2. Because they find it increasingly difficult to consider new measures and programs favorably and courageously, trustees should not serve longer than six or eight years, even on self-perpetuating boards. This change should be incorporated in state laws or in board by-laws, of which each new trustee would be informed and to which he would agree before appointment. Many persons consider a five-year term, specified in the by-laws, an efficient limit, with reappointments made only after a one-year interval.

THE BOARD IN ACTION

In undertaking to organize, start their operations and manage their affairs to get greatest results, trustees will aim to avoid frequently cited criticisms: Considering the position as a matter of prestige when in fact it is an obligation to get results; delaying action by uninterested members who give too little time and cannot make up their minds; holding too infrequent meetings and having difficulty in getting quorums; keeping aloof from and fearing municipal government; and tolerating ineffective service and employees.

In contrast they will aim for such major constructive attitudes as acceptance of the principle of board unity and subordination of self-interest, ability to initiate or provide informed leadership, ability to understand and willingness to respect the executive function of the professional administrator, skill in maintaining effective relations with staff and community groups, and willingness to take courageous action for the good of the library despite outside pressures and influences.¹⁹

A well-managed board of trustees holds frequent regular meetings, well attended. The larger the board the less frequent are its scheduled meetings and the harder to get a quorum; this is a great injustice to the library, for the librarian must keep many things dangling. Many first-class appointments have been prevented by such delays; good candidates are in too much demand to admire a library which cannot move. A board of five is more efficient than of seven, seven are better than nine, and more than nine make a board unwieldy. This is so definitely true, with rare exceptions, that such boards should take steps to reduce their size.

Boards of incorporated libraries, like nearly all municipal library boards, should have regular monthly meetings, with definite by-laws, revised or reconsidered every decade; library purposes and methods continually change, though many libraries and boards seem oblivious of this fact.

Committees of the Board

Large boards and too infrequent meetings, both conducive to inefficiency, are unquestionably the chief reasons for the committee system so prevalent. Both Schick and McDiarmid found standing committees of some sort in most boards, especially a finance and an executive committee. Some rarely meet, some discuss routine matters as well as policies, some actually manage certain phases of the library. Theoretical advantages are (a) by dividing assignments each trustee's burden will be lessened; (b) soon each trustee becomes familiar with certain aspects and problems of the library's operation; and (c) each trustee will feel more definite responsibility for something and therefore be more likely to give valuable assist-

ance. But a trustee who familiarizes himself with details of personnel, buildings and services is often tempted not to confine his interest and activities to policies based on adequate reports and recommendations which the librarian should make to the board, but is soon performing functions, or interfering in functions, which actually belong to the librarian.

Jocckel²⁰ and the McDiarmids²¹ recommend giving up standing committees in favor of special committees to study special problems as they arise, a current trend among boards of education and city councils.²² A finance committee may be essential for a library having large endowment funds. And despite pros and cons, many librarians depend substantially on their executive committee, i.e., a small working group of three or four, whatever its name, as counselors and confidants to whom they may resort every few days for discussion on innumerable routine problems which arise in any going concern.

Some trustee, because he has more time, or is closer at hand, or is extremely interested and helpful, may be looked to more and more by the librarian to settle questions or give encouragement, outside and in advance of his committee or board meeting. Unless this trustee's judgment, activities, statements and decisions, which can hardly help committing his colleagues to one position or action after another, are promptly reported to these colleagues and wholeheartedly backed by them, bad relations within the board may result, influencing the board's attitude to the librarian. A board member cultivated too ardently is tempted to dip into management and operation. Though individual trustees have no legal power, hundreds try to make decisions, issue instructions and give out statements which have not been submitted to or given full consideration and decision by their own boards. They are often found working against their colleagues or interfering with the functions of the librarian, causing public or staff antagonisms.

Committee Endorsement

Where a committee or the board expressly authorizes a trustee to be a contact man with the librarian or outside groups, the pros and cons and actions taken on all matters should be reported back to the larger group. A committee should keep a memorandum of its own actions or recommendations, and have these approved at the next meeting of the whole board and included in the record of the board.

At Board Meetings

In carrying on its meetings, the board needs (1) an adequate set of by-laws, which should distinguish between the functions of the librarian and the board; (2) a definite order of business, which should be listed in the

by-laws; and (3) an itemized agenda or docket of current business to be considered. Unprepared-for meetings waste time and discourage efficient members from coming. Good examples of by-laws and agenda are given in Marian Winsor's *Handbook*, pp. 29-36.

Usually the librarian prepares the docket, arranged according to the board's regular order of business, with a few lines of explanatory summary, and has pertinent data at hand as each item comes up. If he goes over these in advance with the president, the latter can estimate the time for each topic. In large libraries where much business is handled rapidly it is customary for each trustee to receive a copy of the docket, sometimes in advance. A good president and a good librarian see that meetings are harmonious and consequential.²³ We discuss in Chapters 7 and 32 the financial statement needed, itemizing receipts and expenditures as budgeted under six or eight major headings for the year, then for the current month, then for the portion of the year to date and finally the balance on hand to finish the fiscal year.

The librarian is present at board meetings in nearly all libraries; in the majority of libraries he acts as secretary or assistant secretary. Even in a small library he can hardly operate the library if he does not attend and take part in what goes on. If he does not attend board meetings there must be either a misconception of the duties of the board, or such a lack of confidence in the librarian that he should be replaced.

THE BOARD AND POLICIES

With so much said about policies, a new trustee may inquire: Just how do we go about formulating them? Suggestions include:

1. Perusing the references to "policies" and topic headings in Marian Winsor's *Handbook*,² looking up the index references in the present volume, and reading the policies issue of *Public Library Reporter*.²⁴

2. Formulating a priority list of what the trustees and librarian as of now consider the most debatable or most pressing questions of policy, especially for long-range planning in contrast to minor topics of the moment, and arriving at some conclusion, for example, the library's role in "adult education." (See Chapter 1.)²⁵

3. Preparing written policy statements, ready for approval and publication. They save time, effort and money; give positive directives and clear definitions to the librarian; help build public support; clarify board-librarian relationships; aid review of practices from time to time; aid in evaluation and reduce criticism by presenting carefully thought-out statements instead of personal opinions. Such statements have to be kept up-to-date, for every action of a board confirms or modifies established policies, or creates new ones.

A variety of policy statements, under numerous headings, are found in

White.²⁴ Two statements prepared by librarians Greenaway and Winslow were issued by the Enoch Pratt Free Library of Baltimore, in 1947 and in 1954, respectively²⁵—in reality programs for financial, branch and staff expansion, details of which “the librarian is directed to develop and formalize . . . for subsequent consideration and action by this board.”

THE BOARD AND LEGAL PROBLEMS

Trustees logically concern themselves also with legal questions which crop up. Often they are aided by skilled services given by public-spirited lawyers on the board or in the community, or by the city attorney. There are compilations of library laws from all the states²⁷ and most state commissions furnish a printed summary of local library laws. Still not available is a badly needed case book or substantial discussion of the many legal problems that have actually faced libraries. Such questions may arise in acquiring sites, erecting buildings, contracting for services, contracting to join with other library units and in connection with personnel, damages of various sorts, titles to property and rights to funds, interpretation or changes of wills, etc.²⁸

THE BOARD AND FINANCES

Various writers invariably place the trustees' responsibility for financial support next in importance only to the selection of an efficient librarian. As new librarians are appointed at long intervals, on an average of perhaps twelve years,²⁹ this leaves finances as the ever-present subject facing the trustees, calling for a sound sense of appraisal of needs, courage to ask and sometimes to demand fair support, and a vast resourcefulness to see that the library cause prevails in the competition among all publicly supported activities. Trustees need to explore other sources than real property taxes, such as Ohio's intangibles tax. Schick found library finances were discussed by boards far more than anything else, but unfortunately much of this was on details which should be delegated to the treasurer, librarian or clerical assistant, so that the trustees could work on debatable or unusual items.

In practically all libraries the librarian either is solely responsible for the preparation of the budget or shares the responsibility with the board and/or a city agency. More details of budget preparation are discussed in Chapter 7, on finances, and in Chapter 6 of Winsor. Trustees will hardly ignore the municipal government's general financial problems, such as the present total tax rate versus first-line new municipal obligations. But they are also arbiters of the fate of all the convictions, ambitions and everyday wishes of the entire library personnel, and through them the outcome of

reader demands. The obligation of the chief librarian and the staff to press for what the public asks in service is just as great as in the trustees' obligation to question and analyze it. And their mutual obligation in this respect is proportionally as great for a five-person as for a two hundred-person staff, and they are just as aware of the taxpayer's burden in one case as in the other.

The board's clear duty is to secure fair appropriations despite the inevitable reasons put forth as to why a town or city is too poor to do fairly by its library; often the same city budgets provide for new cultural enterprises of less value to the public but urged by powerful zealots.³⁰ Many boards, not relishing the struggle with their "friends at city hall," immediately range themselves with the municipal officers in trying to avoid substantial budget increases. Worse yet, trustees have been appointed by mayors, city managers and councils with the definite purpose of assuring that the board will not importune fiscal officials for more money.

A case book on public reactions to budget requests and bond issue projects would afford inspiring examples of trustees whose conviction and resourcefulness have won their case, as by selection of the best persons to help present it, the marshaling of arguments, perhaps the use of graphic charts, and a keen determination to win despite competition from other quarters. (See references to bond campaigns, in Chapter 9.)

THE BOARD AND PERSONNEL

Next to finances, in time consumed in board meetings and committees, is the subject of library personnel. We have already cited Munro's statement that the most important of all trustee functions is the selection of a competent librarian. This requires time, attention and great effort:

Choosing a Head Librarian

1. Prepare a set of qualifications or criteria, as in Chapter 5, putting leadership ability first.
2. Appoint a screening committee to search the country, by letters, telephone, telegrams and advertisements, for outstanding candidates; and select two or three to present to the whole board with carefully prepared evaluation.
3. After one or two notable new candidates have been discovered, consider whether someone in the system is equally qualified by real abilities, rather than by merely being on the scene, or long in service, or importunate directly or through pressure groups. A major responsibility of public boards is to resist pressure and insist on the highest standards.³¹
4. The committee's chief duty is to search until it finds two or three outstanding candidates and not simply to await letters or visits from applicants. In library work the best persons seldom apply—jobs must seek them. In the

1960's there are several head librarianships vacant for every applicant; good candidates have their choice of libraries and a few days' delay when the trustees are inactive may mean losing the best person.

5. All applications and the screening job should remain in the committee's hands without interference from other trustees until the committee's recommendations are ready, and the preceding steps need to be taken within the space of a few days.

6. While grades and credentials from library schools are of major significance, the evaluations from school placement officers cannot always be taken at face value, nor recommendations from friendly colleagues. Frank and detailed statements from former employers and from dispassionate observers, i.e., other outstanding librarians, as to specific qualities and accomplishments, are more useful.

7. Competent, trained librarians are seldom seeking positions today; there is a great dearth. It is a delusion that a good librarian wishes to settle down into a secure berth; his chief interest is to develop some library to a high point of efficiency and then tackle a larger one, or one where conditions are more favorable; sometimes he makes such a change with no salary increase.

8. Hunting for bargains is decidedly unprofitable; so is offering a poor salary. Hesitating to offer and advertise as high a salary as possible generally slows down the selecting process. The great majority of boards have to face boldly the problem of getting a drastically increased salary provision for all their staff. Despite the shortage of trained librarians, libraries large enough to employ a full-time librarian should seek the appointment of only a trained head.

When library budgets and salary funds are so difficult to attain, and positions too few to cover the multifold service of so many libraries, trustees and librarian should realize that each position means a substantial piece of work to be done to serve the public, and is to be filled only by the most competent person available, not simply within the present library staff but anywhere. Some libraries constantly improve themselves by wide, intensive search among the profession for outstanding persons, especially to fill positions of leadership. These matters are covered in the personnel chapters later. They are repeated here to make clear that employment in the library is something more than job holding, and that little consideration should be given to pressure from influential officials and citizens in favor of some person, either within the present staff or pining for a job, who does not have what it takes to make the library stronger than it was before. Since the depression there has been increasing mobility among librarians, and the trustees' problem is to hold the good ones.

In personnel matters, the board will evaluate and make decisions in cooperation and consultation with the librarian. If staff members are encouraged or permitted to bring their troubles to the board, or to individual members of it, a dangerous situation results which may lead to resignations, confusion and upset morale of the whole staff. Yet often the board has to act as a court of resort in controversial situations.²² Where the librarian by poor management of personnel matters, by some arbitrary decision or

order or by continued failure to secure fair salaries and other benefits for the staff shows his weakness as administrator, the individual employee or some committee has an obvious right to bring the situation to the attention of the full board. The intention and facts should first be submitted to the librarian, and if he is involved he should let the staff member present his case first after asking a board committee to take up the matter. Any subterfuge or concealment by either librarian or board, as to all the facts that both should know, will be unfortunate.

Such vital matters as salary scales, hours of employment, pensions and other benefits are normally analyzed and the facts put into shape for board consideration by the librarian, preferably aided by a committee from the staff. Pros and cons of the problem and of staff attitudes will thus be well understood before decisions are made.

Today in most libraries appointments are made on recommendation of the librarian. It is he with whom the employee usually deals in coming to an agreement, even if the larger library has a personnel officer. The board, which commonly holds the legal authority to appoint, delegates the actual choice and judgment to the librarian, who is in the best position to know the needs and is expected to evaluate candidates carefully, presenting his considered recommendations with evidence for the board to consider for approval or disapproval. Often the board or a committee wishes to interview one or two candidates for important posts.

A real handicap for trustees is insufficient knowledge of the detailed work of the departments. They can get some idea by seeing in operation the reference and informational services, the classifying and cataloging of books and services to children, and can realize the essential, detailed and specialized training and experience on which each reader draws and which cannot be lost or transferred with such impunity as can clerical experience.

It may be hard for a successful department store owner to understand why among a staff of eight or ten trained specialist assistants no one is qualified to be promoted to a department headship, and an outsider must be appointed. Clerks can be transferred more easily from notions to kitchenware or vice versa in a store than can an instructor in astronomy to head a college chemistry department, or an obstetrician to serve as a heart specialist, or a children's room assistant to manage a technical department in a library. Among the numerous small groups in specialized work, there may not be an assistant with the ability for staff and community leadership plus the desire for an exacting administrative position.

THE BOARD AND BOOK SELECTION

Often by statute, the board is officially responsible for book selection; it usually has a book committee. Only in small libraries, however, does the

board give substantial attention to the usual run of book selection; the more they delegate this to the library staff, the better for all concerned. In large libraries even the librarian no longer attempts to decide on the majority of titles chosen; department and branch heads do this, as discussed in Chapter 27. In medium-sized and small libraries the librarian takes most of the responsibility, drawing on book-and-reader knowledge of the staff.

Voluminous recent writings have discussed the duty of the library to have controversial material on all timely subjects, to follow the liberal rather than authoritarian trends in the community and to avoid and withstand censorship.²³ When questions and criticism arise, or may be expected and feared, those who do the actual selecting and recommending should consult with the librarian and board for advice and decision on how to uphold freedom of thought but also to avoid controversy. Good administration organizes the selection process to foresee such cases. There is likely to be more rather than less of the fascist, orthodox and authoritarian spirit at large, and this problem will grow more acute.

Library workers, in daily contact with the readers of the community and knowing their sentiments, need to weigh pros and cons carefully, and report them to the librarian, so that when the librarian recommends an action to the board he will have a well-balanced overall view of the principles involved, the criticisms against the book, and sound specific reasons why it should or should not be accepted. In a sense he is interpreter and defender for the mass of actual library users who join neither side in controversies of this sort, but have strong views and should have chief consideration in the decision. He will be doing harm to the library if he takes a doctrinaire attitude, whether liberal or conservative, courageous or timid, or fails to see that the inevitable publicity is well handled, or leads his trustees into a troublesome controversy wherein the library appears to be on the wrong side in the minds of the majority of the intelligent portion of the community, in the face of some noisy minority or pressure group. Many librarians who handled their part sensibly and courageously have been overruled by trustees stampeded into bad decisions; trustees are more inclined than their staffs to be impressed by and give way to pressure groups, whereas general public opinion is often against these groups.

The literature on library censorship often outlines sound principles, but it is understandably difficult to find discussion as to how individual cases were handled. As libraries become more active as centers for social and educational information on which better citizenship can be built, they will increasingly have to leave the sidelines and get into controversial areas. This viewpoint is the direct antithesis to the totalitarian philosophy in which many citizens are nurtured.

But it is well for trustees to see that the board, the librarian, the staff, are not permitted to make themselves or the library into a sounding board

for any side of any subject. No matter what the intention, the public inevitably personalizes its library largely on the basis of the staff members it meets and the library officers, including board members, whose views it hears or reads about in the newspapers.

PUBLIC RELATIONS OF THE LIBRARY BOARD

Though public relations rate high among trustee interests, unquestionably trustees would gladly do much more for the public relations of most libraries if librarians would suggest the two-way communication that library and community need to have with each other, and the part each trustee can play. Regrettably, some librarians and trustees fear and distrust public opinion about administrative, financial and policy aspects of the library. The suggestion that board meetings be reported in the local paper has been passed off by many boards as "too hot to handle"; they echo Alexander Hamilton's "The People, Sir, is a Great Beast." It is a democratic principle that public and readers' opinion should be recognized. Everything which affects the library being of public concern, the community can be made enthusiastically favorable to the library, if it so deserves. True, it is more comfortable for boards and librarians to run things all by themselves. If library boards regard participation in library affairs by staff, by readers, by citizen groups such as Friends of the Library as an infringement of their rights, then of course democratic administration must fail; the community is not deluded into considering that such a library is a democratic institution.

Many library trustees and librarians, instead of being acquainted with real public opinion, i.e., of all classes and interests, are in fact limited by personal acquaintance and preference within a small business, professional, social, cultural circle. Surely the staff reports to the librarian, and a good librarian passes on to his board, as much information as possible as to public opinion and criticism from all sources, as well as gratifying compliments.

Some specific suggestions for trustees are: Speeches on library topics, after careful preparation in consultation with the librarian and the whole board, at public meetings and forums, especially on finance, salary and policy matters, on building and extension programs. Board studies, with librarian or staff committee, on library equipment, building problems, matters involving additional funds, and library salary levels and scales. Planned solicitation of gifts, of special or notable materials, or of funds to buy them. Contacts, in consultation with the librarian, with organizations or leaders with whom trustees are acquainted, for furthering library relations with these outside channels, as discussed in Chapter 9.

THE BOARD'S EVALUATIVE FUNCTION

Appraisal of its library is the fourth prime function of the board. Not many would agree with a trustee that a survey by competent outsiders would be "a great reflection on this board," though the librarian had urged it because needs were so pressing. This president claimed that the library was one of the very best in the country. Perhaps an alert board ready to look facts in the face can become aware by random inquiry and observation whether its librarian, staff and services are good, mediocre or poor. But seldom can they tell themselves why, or prove their beliefs.

The obligation to perform at least this superficial self-evaluation seems obvious. Unless the board understands the factors, can weigh pros and cons, has some measuring sticks, it is in poor position to know what sort of a library it is running. Its lack of information about its own library may be startling, and dismaying to the librarian and staff it employs.

Suggestions to gain some background and perspective whereby to judge and weigh values and recommendations made to and by a board would be:

1. Setting aside some time in which to go through the library carefully, with the librarian or a qualified colleague to explain what's what, and to inquire into the organization and the work of each assistant in a smaller library or at least the leaders in a larger one, and to learn what each department or branch is doing in building its materials and serving the readers. The staff should be informed that the trustees are not looking into the status of individuals, but into the methods, services and workings of the library. Showing trustees the follow-through, the tools used, on a reference question while the reader awaits the result often proves the first revelation of what a library does.

2. Reading two A.L.A. publications—*Winsor's Handbook*,⁴ and *Public Library Service: a Guide to Evaluation, with Minimum Standards*, and its supplement *Costs of Public Library Service in 1959*.⁵ These and Chapter 8 of the present book, on statistics, standards and measurements, give trustees a basis for evaluating many aspects of their library's operation.

3. Visiting a few selected meritorious libraries of similar size or a little larger; attending trustees' sessions at state and regional library conferences; discussing matters with other trustees one may encounter, seek out or correspond with; and analyzing reports and statistics from similar communities, often available in library magazines or through the state commission.

4. Raising questions at board meetings, and requesting factual reports by the librarian, preferably in writing, on major questions of development and on details of operation. Pertinent data and graphs may be called for, and the board should have all facts even when unfavorable. It may consider a subject so specialized or technical or involving so much expense that it will appoint a temporary committee to inquire further, in terms of costs and results, and the fair proportion between different aspects of the service.

Criteria by various surveyors of public library situations indicate that a common factor in the good or poor status of a library is the board's con-

stant interest in the element of measurement as to: (a) what the public is getting for its money; (b) what each staff member is paid for services rendered and for his talents; (c) whether the library is moving ahead or standing still in its total circulation, its adult nonfiction circulation, its children's services and the volume and quality of its reference service; (d) the degree to which the library is looked upon by the community and by individual citizens as a constant daily impetus to constructive thinking and activity, and to good citizenship, measurable in part by the attention given the library in local or nearby newspapers; and (e) the community's concern with and devotion to "the things of the mind," which the board has a basic responsibility to promote.

A TRIBUTE IS DUE TO THOSE TRUSTEES

Who have a deep conviction of the power of books, reading, study, the use of up-to-date information.

Who have the courage, patience, persuasion and resolution to take the initiative and see that the library is fairly supported and attains its goals.

Who withstand pressure that would inflict unsound and harmful ideas, decisions and personnel on the board, on the library and its staff, and therefore on its services to the taxpayers.

Who have the vision to review and assess, periodically, what the library is doing and plans to do, in the light of current concepts and progress elsewhere.

Who resist the temptation to self-satisfaction and inertia.

Who place active, time-giving service to the library as their real motive for taking and holding membership on the board, above any thought of prestige.

The A. L. A. and several state associations now recognize, by annual Trustee Awards, the appreciation which librarians and their communities feel for these services to the public.

GENERAL REFERENCES

For background reading, the books by Winsor,⁴ Garceau⁵ and the McDiarmids⁶ are especially recommended. Shaffer⁷ discusses actual problem-cases, and White²⁴ gives the text of numerous policy statements. Houle's book²⁵ covers boards of various types of organization and has many practical ideas. The A. L. A. booklet *Public Library Service*⁷ is full of specific statements on all aspects of library principles.

FOOTNOTES AND SPECIAL MATERIAL

1. Carleton B. Joeckel. *Government of the American Public Library*. 373 p. 1935. Univ. of Chicago Press. p. 77-262.

2. F. Patrick Henry, see footnote 28 below. p. 48-49, 54.

3. Morton Kroll, ed. *Pacific Northwest Library Association Library Development Project Reports*. v. 1: *The Public Libraries of the Pacific Northwest*. 461 p. 1960. Univ. of Washington Press. Chapter 7, p. 134-231. An objective political scientist frankly surveys numerous library boards and their operations.
4. Marian Manley Winser. *A Handbook for Library Trustees*. 2nd ed., rev. and enl. 181 p. 1959. Bowker. \$5.
5. Oliver Garceau. *The Public Library in the Political Process*. 254 p. 1949. Columbia Univ. Press.
6. Everett W. and John McDiarmid. *Administration of the American Public Library*. 250 p. 1943. Univ. of Illinois Press.
7. *Public Library Service, a Guide to Evaluation, with Minimum Standards*. 74 p. A. L. A. 1956. Also its supplement, *Costs of Public Library Service*. 1959. 75¢. Prepared by an A. L. A. Committee.
8. Morton Kroll. *op. cit.*
9. Kenneth R. Shaffer. *Twenty-five Cases in Executive-Trustee Relationships in Public Libraries*. 187 p. 1960. Shoe String Press, Hamden, Conn. \$4.50. Discussion of actual situations, e.g., budget cuts, replacement and choice of directors, inclusion in civil service, surveys, mechanical equipment, trustees and city officials, a bequest, fine money stolen, etc. Decidedly worth study. See also the valuable chapter by Harold L. Hamill, "Executive-Board Relations in Public Libraries," in Ernest J. Reese, ed. *Current Trends in Library Administration*. *Library Trends*, v. 7, no. 3, Jan. 1959, p. 388-397.
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18. John C. Almack. *The School Board Member*. p. 19.
19. Aubrey Milam. "Pressure Groups and the Library: Symposium." *Southeastern Librarian*. 7: 50-51. Summer 1957.
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22. See also "Dangers in Committee Organization," in Charles H. Wilson, "School Board Organization as a Process." *American School Board Journal*. 120:27-28. April 1950.
23. Cyril O. Houle. *The Effective Board*. 174 p. 1960. Association Press. \$3.50. Time-saving shortcuts to good procedures.
24. Ruth M. White, ed. *Public Library Policies—General and Specific*. (Public Library Reporter. No. 9.) 109 p. 1960. A. L. A. \$2.50. Detailed statements from 184 libraries. See also footnotes for Chapter 2.
25. Cyril O. Houle. "The Responsibility of Library Trustees for Adult Education." A. L. A. Bulletin. 40: 431-435. Nov. 1946. Reprinted by A. L. A. in 1958.
26. Enoch Pratt Free Library. *Staff Reporter*, Feb. 1, 1947. And Amy Winslow. *Reaching Toward Objectives, 1954-1959*. 10 p. mimeo. Nov. 15, 1954. See also summary of Newark (N. J.) policy statement, *Library Journal*. April 1, 1947. p. 518. Also American Association of School Administrators and National School Boards Association. *Written Policies for School Boards*. 28 p. 1955. National Education Association.

27. James C. Foutts, ed. *American Library Laws*. 2d ed. 1247 p. 1943. A. L. A. \$10. Many states have passed their most important legislation since this appeared. No plans for updating. *Bowker Annual of Library and Book Trade Information*, includes a summary of state and federal legislation on libraries.

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CHAPTER 5

The Librarian (Director)*

The librarian is engaged in one of the most varied, interesting and socially useful professions. While the board of trustees is the legal entity, responsible to taxpayers and community for the library's welfare, it is the librarian who is chosen and paid to carry out the delegated responsibility, to see that everything about the library flourishes. He is employed primarily to direct an institution of surpassing social value and one which can strengthen the intellectual life of every citizen.

FUNCTIONS OF THE LIBRARIAN

Most librarians are overburdened with administrative detail, while at the same time few adequately cover the real administrative functions outlined in Chapter 3: formulating overall objectives and policies; planning; determining the organizational framework; making major decisions, including those on personnel; supervising the "middle-management" heads, and seeing that they carry out well the responsibilities delegated to them; balancing and coordinating all the workers and activities into a smoothly operating whole; and evaluating what is going on.

A Public Librarian's Activities

The variety of a librarian's usual activities suggests that as the library grows larger he should seek positions and salaries for competent colleagues to whom he will delegate important aspects of the work. But he cannot avoid the final overhead decisions and the initiative which alone assure good results in each of the following:

* The context usually makes clear whether the word "librarian" in this book refers to the trained library staff in general or to their chief or director. In small and medium-size libraries the titles "head librarian," "chief librarian," "director" seem to many somewhat self-important; heads of many libraries prefer the connotations of the simpler title, "librarian."

1. Directing an EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION whose influence reaches potentially into every home, organization and place of occupation, and into the lives of old and young, that they may profit by the use of books for information, recreation and inspiration. Making books and similar materials add to the thinking power and intelligence of the people; and emphasizing those services and materials which will encourage each citizen to study, understand and assert himself on current issues.

2. Envisioning the whole COMMUNITY as awaiting fullest service; equally concerned and in contact with its industrial, business, labor, civic, social, recreational, cultural and religious groups, to see that the library organization knows and serves them all, especially with reference and informational materials, including encouragement for their own programs, space for discussion meetings and audio-visual materials which do not duplicate those available locally.

3. Actively COOPERATING WITH THE SCHOOLS and other agencies to improve the methods of teaching of READING, "first of the three R's," to persons of all ages and abilities, as basic to the learning and thinking processes on which the progress and happiness of each citizen depend. Working understandingly with local schools and colleges in all matters of mutual concern.

4. COOPERATING WITH THE TRUSTEES, who officially constitute the library organization, seeing that each takes some active responsibility for the general policies and adequate public support of the library, especially when pressure for public funds calls for courageous and aggressive action by librarian and trustees.

5. As head of a MUNICIPAL DEPARTMENT (in fact if not by law) cooperating with progressive municipal leaders in plans, projects and procedures, either directly or through the trustees.

6. MANAGING A PUBLIC BUSINESS in which buildings, equipment and all expenditures for books and materials, but especially for salaries, are scrutinized with a view to securing full returns to the public, in an efficient and economical fashion; evaluating ideas, formulating plans and policies and making decisions, objectively and soundly.

7. Operating a DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM of materials, ideas and information aimed to reach the largest number of people with the greatest number of worthy, useful, stimulating books, including the specialized and less frequently used books and nonbook materials of worth and significance which need to be available.

8. ORGANIZING the units of service and the staff therefor; laying out and dividing their activities, delegating and clarifying responsibilities and authority, and modifying the organization to advantage when opportunity arises; seeking simplicity in overhead, and avoiding bureaucracy and empire building.

9. STAFFING with the most able colleagues—department heads, professional and clerical assistants, pages, part-time and building employees, with regard primarily to the good of the service, and seeing that vacancies are filled by better persons whenever possible.

10. Discovering, encouraging and DEVELOPING STAFF initiative, knowledge and ability and securing fully adequate and fairly graded compensation and recognition with due regard to each individual's contribution to the library's progress.

11. SUPERVISING and reviewing the administrative METHODS and supervisory SKILLS of each department, and the routines of its work, to encourage the department head to see that the various essential records and processes are simplified to a minimum, and arranged to eliminate unessential paperwork, waste motion and delays, and that no staff member shall be doing regularly any portion of the work which a less highly paid member can do as well.

12. Observing the SERVICE received by the public at each department and distributing point, and arranging for recurrent tests and checks on it, to be certain that the materials, the methods and the spirit of the service shall be the most complete, prompt and helpful possible, to the public which pays the bills.

13. Drawing upon the best information and judgment within and without the community to select a stock of BOOKS AND MATERIALS adequate to the needs and appropriate to the constant changes in public demand, and developing within the staff that thorough knowledge of books and their values which will make the book collection effectively useful to the whole community.

14. By constant forethought attempting to see that the library discovers and encourages THE INDIVIDUAL CITIZEN, old or young including persons not yet library users, to accomplish some definite purpose in any worthy field where study of printed information and other library materials will help.

15. Keeping the public informed, and strengthening PUBLIC RELATIONS, through constant, resourceful and varied forms of PUBLICITY on the work of the library as an institution, the services and materials which each citizen can obtain from it, and its policies and problems, freely and frankly reported.

16. Developing himself through constant challenge of his own viewpoints and methods, professional and general reading, and a sympathetic interest in SCHOLARSHIP in general made real by an avocation of research in some field.

17. COMBATting INSTITUTIONAL INERTIA in the community and inside the library, working for sound, constructive change, finding ways to overcome public indifference to social problems, but refraining from "library evangelism," and not permitting the library, through any representative, to become a sounding board for any controversial attitude.

Obviously, the librarian in the smaller as in the larger library has a great variety of responsibilities. He must walk the tightrope of keeping his own various functions in proper balance and proportion, not letting any one outrun or lag behind the others. If he enjoys it, he transmits his own confidence to his colleagues and encourages them to share with him the satisfactions as well as the problems of pushing the library ahead.

THE LIBRARIAN AS SUPERVISOR AND TEACHER

The librarian is first of all an administrator of a public service and a community educational institution. He is paid to be a manager, and this transcends two other aspects of his work, frequently discussed in library literature: "Is the librarian a scholar or a technician?" His training and experience should have inculcated a sympathetic respect for scholarly in-

terests and habits, and substantial reading and acquaintance with books, but also familiarity with library services and methods.¹ His personal interests in these respects are inevitably reflected in the quality of his administration.

But with all his delegating, it is he who is the director, the key man, the chief planner, the decider, organizer, supervisor and measurer of what goes on and how much it costs the taxpayer; he is the builder of the book collection and the services to the community; he must see that whoever is in charge of personnel is building a stronger, not a weaker staff; and he is the one who ties things together at the top, who ties his library into the life of his town or city and into the flow of civic and national progress. A good librarian does not merely keep the library running; day by day he sees that every aspect of it grows more effective than before, through his ideals, watchfulness, planning, management and appraisal.

If all to whom work is delegated were to carry out their assignments with complete efficiency, perhaps the librarian would have little to do. There never was such a librarian, nor any such group of 100 percenters. So the librarian can never delegate his own share of supervision. He has to see that those to whom he delegates responsibility carry it out effectively, or wherein they fall short, and what to do about it. He is and must be the supervisor-in-chief, even when as is sometimes suggested an additional person may be brought in as a super-supervisor to make up for his own lack of supervisory capacity and that of some of his department heads. This introduces two heads or guides or instruction givers for each department. The remedy is more likely to be the development of supervisory ability by department heads, branch librarians and all those who, because they are in charge of others, should logically exercise it, most of all the librarian. If he simply has not the capability to develop it, he should step aside.

Florence Nightingale, whom one might not think of primarily as an administrator, has said: "To be 'in charge' is certainly not only to carry out the proper measures yourself but to see that everyone else does so too. It is neither to do everything yourself, nor to appoint a number of people to each duty, but to ensure that each does that duty to which he is appointed."² This is the essence of supervision, discussed further in Chapter 16.

A librarian has to be a teacher, also, though some librarians are irked when they realize that in business and public administration this has long been evident. It is not enough for members of a staff to acquire skill and character by the slow process of absorption; they profit most by planned training. Not only does the librarian by his example give the cue for action and behavior and set the pattern for methods and performance, he has also to see that he is training and developing people while he is managing them. He teaches them the purpose and value of their work, how to work together, how to find short cuts, how to serve the public better, how

to meet and raise the level of reader interests and how to improve the status of the library as a community facility and an educational enterprise.

ADMINISTRATIVE INFLUENCES ON THE LIBRARIAN

Though intimately involved in the familiar circle of library staff, services, methods and thinking, the librarian is at the center also of his community, and of influences from the world without. The foregoing list of a librarian's duties may be restudied in the light of several main influences which play upon his daily thinking and work, diagrammed as follows:



(Thanks to Stuart Sherman for suggestions modifying the original diagram.)

The Staff's Influence

The librarian's immediate concern is with what goes on inside the library and with the direction of his staff. The staff of the library as a group, its collective attitudes and opinions, inevitably and rightly influences administrative thinking, policies and decisions, just as the trustees and librarian influence the staff's. Each staff member is also an individual, worthy of the librarian's thought independent of library duties. So he must like to work with people such as his colleagues within the library organization and be interested in helpful contacts with them to profit by their ideas.² He will report and interpret to his staff the decisions of the trustees and their study of current problems and show his loyalty to the board. In several large libraries trustee actions are reported in the staff bulletin. Conversely he will report staff attitudes to the board. He should

be willing to meet issues with colleagues whom he calls by their first names, and be willing to face, persist in and struggle for ideals and principles rather than retreat into compromises or lethargy. His own attitudes as to class distinctions within the library such as, professional and clerical, affect the staff's attitudes, for any such distinction rightly brings reactions from minority groups. A good librarian and good department heads will man public service points at times so as to give other workers scheduled there a chance to attend staff meetings; by so doing they can also get a worthwhile view of the services to readers and make their administrative thinking more realistic.

The Patrons' Influence

Though the librarian works inside his walls, intimately involved in the familiar circle of library services, methods and thinking, he cannot forget the mental picture of the population he serves, represented by the ruled square in the preceding diagram. His frame of reference is the limits of the area served by the library. There is the crowd of present library users, the procession of individual patrons, old and young, and their ideas, suggestions and responses to library services, regulations and publicity. They constitute a court of judgment as to how well the library is being run and therefore on the librarian's work. Suggestions and criticisms should be welcomed. To the extent that the librarian is aware of this, encourages the flow of patron reaction, and takes advantage of it in his planning, he shows himself a good or poor administrator.

Influence of Non-Users of the Library

But then there is the great crowd of men and women who do not yet use the library, and the various groups and organizations hardly aware of the library but offering channels for greater service; some of them, at least occasionally, bring pressure to bear on him. In the diagram above, these library non-users, sometimes the majority of the adult citizens, fill up all the remaining space inside the square. Their characteristics, their reactions to the library's proffers of service, their very status as non-users must inevitably be of concern to the librarian.

A librarian who enjoys human nature and who has any imagination finds pleasure in standing on a busy sidewalk, looking into the faces of the passing crowd, trying to see into their thoughts and attitudes. He gets a picture of his city by looking at it from the top of the highest building and seeing its physical character and its major elements. These are not sentimental gestures but sources for insight into community service.

This throng of non-users should have a far greater influence on librarian, trustee and staff thinking than we have been able to find reported. Signifi-

cant library planning has to move outward from the library's walls toward the community it should serve. This need not take the form of being "a community leader" or even an adult education leader; the profitable extent of a librarian's personal involvement in this is debatable. Direct promotion of the library's major service program may easily absorb more time and activity than he can give. In any case his endeavors should not be slanted toward any one element of the population he serves, or toward any one subject field, or any one activity of the library, or toward some particular viewpoint or cure-all for which, unless he takes care, he may become a symbol.

Relations with Local Government

In this diagram of the community scene the trustees are the librarian's immediate employers and directors, his critical but sympathetic counselors and supporters. As he reports and is responsible to them they can never be far from his thoughts. But trustees, library, librarian and staff are part of municipal government, with ethical and social obligations to local city officials, whether or not the library is technically subject to municipal control. The librarian's own attitudes and philosophy as to his community's government and politics are certain to influence and be influenced by those of his trustees and staff, and these attitudes should be cooperative and understanding. Aloofness from and ignorance of current local situations does not often build library progress; rather it is a weakness, as pointed out by Joeckel, the McDiarmids, and Garceau. The public library should serve as reference center for municipal departments where there is no municipal reference library. In recent years, particular attention has been given to strengthening librarian-municipality relationships.⁴

In a democracy, schools and libraries thrive on public participation and criticism, and the librarian has to be prepared for this, believe in it and not run away from it. The politician is interested in getting in and staying in, in short-term plans and results and in quick public approval. The librarian will see which of the library's purposes, plans, services and accomplishments can coincide with those of city officials. He can call their attention to recent reports and articles, such as are indexed in *Public Affairs Information Service*, on their current problems. He needs to make them proud of the library, like other departments, instead of critical or indifferent.

The librarian, with his trustees, will support moves toward "rational urbanism," including planning, zoning, civic centers, mass transit, better parking, sound housing, redevelopment of blighted areas and other programs of current civic improvement. Officials who guide progress in these directions are not charged with the responsibility to see that reading and library service are made more effective in the local community; that is the

library board's and librarian's function. The library is important enough to have its own place in the sun, and library officers will see that along with other worthy civic objectives the library's welfare is in the forefront and does not trail behind. "Administrative officials must shoulder responsibilities of a political character. The idea of . . . divinely favored beings at the helm of governmental departments is in conflict with the realities. . . . Public administration does not operate in a political void."² No one knows this better than school superintendents and librarians. The question is how to cooperate and be friendly without compromising principles, and how to avoid pressure actions contrary to the welfare of the library and its patrons. Much of this is tied to the library's steady program of public relations whereby the community, including its politically minded officials, is led to understand and respect what the library is trying to do.

From the World of Ideas

The diagram indicates that the library is the connector between local citizens on the one hand and on the other hand the world of intellectual activity, the flow of ideas as reported in print and the developments in education, in the cultural fields and in social, civic and economic affairs. This large order need not be paralyzing; some headway can be made if the librarian and his colleagues try to be aware of what is going on outside their walls, as discussed under the next heading, and translate it into library service. But above this is what many consider a fundamental objective: to manage the library so as to raise the intellectual level and activity of the community. To do this he must give it constant attention.

THE LIBRARIAN'S DAILY WORK

It cannot be assumed that if the librarian's work is studied, planned and simplified he will then be doing mostly what he should do, and not doing what others should do or what need not be done at all. But some headway to that end will be made. The smaller the library and the fewer the workers, the greater the variety of work for each, the greater the proportion of routine detail the librarian must handle, and the less opportunity for some important general administrative work such as planning, outside contacts and promotion. At least a rough division and arrangement of work is worth attempting, though it will be upset by unexpected interruptions largely inflicted from outside, especially by callers who insist on seeing the librarian, by telephone calls and by the demanding profusion of outside meetings and conferences. How can the librarian schedule the following? Planning and decisions on policy, activities, methods, rules, etc. Conferences with trustees. Considering reports from staff. Interviews with depart-

ment and branch heads and assistants. Personnel interviews with candidates for employment. Interviews with readers in regard to services, gift materials, suggestions, etc. Interviews with outsiders on internal matters, new shelving or equipment, supplies, etc. Dictating correspondence. And frequent visits to see what goes on inside the whole library.

This is a day-filling group of activities in any library, large or small; each item is important. But thinking, planning and deciding get squeezed into nothingness in many libraries. Incessant time-stealing telephone calls interrupt everything. And time has to be found for outside visits and conferences which keep the library in active working relations with its community.

If there is any time left, there is professional and job reading, i.e., new books and periodical articles on library work, on education and administrative method; activity in professional organizations, usually as a member of some committee and involving considerable time and work; and attention to new books being published. How shall he keep up his ability to rate the quality, the review evaluations and the usefulness of a considerable number of books? What becomes of his own cultural activity, such as general reading, attending art, musical, dramatic, science, local history programs? The librarian like most other persons has to cover these on his personal out-of-hours time, the difficulty being that most librarians work more than a forty-hour week and are "on the go" an additional ten to twenty hours on matters related to the library's progress. But a majority of successful business executives, too, work from five to twenty-five hours a week overtime, much of it at home.⁸

Aids to Covering More Ground

To accomplish much himself, the librarian has to develop the abilities of others. He invites, leads and instructs others to do as much as possible of what he might wish to do and could do well, but for which he ought not to give the time. This subject, including participation and delegation, is discussed in Chapter 6, for the same principles apply in the work of department heads and others.

In many libraries more than half the things a key executive does could be done by his assistants. Budgeting a librarian's time without analyzing his whole organization of duties and helpers does little good; the problem is to save his time by devices which others find successful. Besides those discussed in Chapters 6, on management, and 11, on work simplification, one may consider the following:

1. Locate the librarian's office away from the main entrance, to reduce the number of visitors; those who have important errands will reach it.
2. Have the office well lighted and quiet (except perhaps for secretary or typist with noiseless typewriter).
3. In any library of 50,000 population an independent inside telephone sys-

tem with three or four stations is almost essential (as discussed in Chapter 11), especially if the children's room and janitor are not on the main floor.

4. Get done in the quieter hours, perhaps before 10:30 A.M., the work which needs concentration without interruption. If necessary have a "retreat," to escape interruptions.

5. The greatest time-savers are getting rid of what doesn't need to be done, and delegating as much as possible of what is left. Answer as few letters as possible; route most of them to colleagues. Routine letters may often be answered by forms, or by a few words given the typist with the original letter, instead of by dictating.

6. A tactful, intelligent secretary or assistant can absorb many incoming phone calls and can be trained to give the message in shorter form to the librarian. She can take care of many visitors with a smile, without their having to see the librarian, send some of them to the department where their question can be better answered, and interrupt an interview so that it will seem evident to the visitor that he should depart.

7. Have as few conferences as possible; list the subjects to be taken up; see that those who were to have data ready are prepared; invite only those directly concerned, the fewer the better and quicker; start and stop on time; keep discussion to the point; adjourn when things meander; assign follow-ups to specific people; and dictate a brief summary of decisions, so all will understand the same things as to the results.

8. Any library of 20,000 population or more should consider the purchase of dictating equipment (see Chapter 11). Next to the telephone, this is the greatest time-saver; one can dictate whenever convenient whether a typist is available or not; and a stenographer is not needed.

THE LIBRARIAN'S AIDES

The potential of a first-class secretary should be considered and developed rather than assigning to an assistant librarian any duties which a good secretary can handle well. Advertisements in state library bulletins sometimes call for an "assistant librarian" when the job description in fact calls for clerical work abilities.

The Secretary

Secretarial or typing help in the smaller library has to be considered as to organization and expense. Often it has to be combined with something else, e.g., ordering, accounts, registration, etc. But the librarian should insist on enough of it to prevent his having to do his own typing in any library of over 15,000 population. This means expense, but it is justified expense; it saves even more valuable time. A great amount of time-consuming routine can be absorbed by an intelligent, discreet, cooperative secretary; it pays to develop one by instruction, encouragement and delegation of

responsibility. A secretary's value is controlled by her chief's ability to capitalize on her skills. Delegation of the highest and most interesting type of work she can handle is a main source of job satisfaction.⁷ Consideration for her feelings, giving credit for good work, showing confidence, keeping her informed of what is going on and what may come up during the day, explaining things so she will feel she understands, seeing that her work flow is kept fairly even and doesn't pile up at 5 P.M., and letting her help answer letters, plan her chief's schedule, and remind him of appointments and of what is expected next—these make successful and happy secretaries.

Locate the secretary or typist at a desk next to the librarian's or just outside his office to intercept visitors and in many cases answer their questions. At a desk opposite or at right angles to the librarian's, she can answer telephone calls and dispose of many herself, get out letters and phone around the library for materials or information he needs. This saves him the time of stepping outside to ask her, or waiting to get someone on the phone. These two time wasters, unessential callers and telephoning, can be drastically cut by a competent on-the-scene secretary. The staff should be informed of the responsibilities of the librarian's secretary so they may feel free to consult her on appropriate matters.

In dictating, formulate answers, outline main points and ideas, and have needed data on hand before starting; cut interruptions by deferring visitors and phone calls during dictation periods; give instructions as to carbon copies, routing, deadline, etc. To avoid later questions, concentrate on thinking through what is to be said; have the typist or secretary answer all the letters she can, and get others to do letters pertaining to their work if they can; get correspondence signed and out of the way before the typist's day is supposed to end.

A Business Manager?

Although some librarians can command better-paying positions in business, there are laymen who imagine that librarians have little business or managerial ability. In any large library there is a volume of fiscal routine, purchasing and other activity which belongs in what is sometimes called a library's "business office," as discussed in Chapter 32. A competent headship for this office work is a justifiable budget item.

The title "business manager" sometimes has misleading connotations; the librarian, who makes the decisions on staff, budget and expenditures, is the manager of all aspects of the library's operation. If someone else is brought in as a "manager," is he to make decisions in fiscal routines? In efficiency methods? In purchasing materials? In personnel matters? In making and interpreting cost studies? In preparing the budget?

Each of these topics is itself a specialty; seldom is an outsider qualified in them all, nor does he know library operation well enough to interpret

what he sees and to apply what he knows. If the librarian is running the library, he is the one to measure the significance of facts and figures and apply them to library planning and decisions. If he is not running the library efficiently, he should be replaced. The double authority implied by the word "manager" may lead to conflict, as it has in many school systems. If budget ideas and apportionments are to be decided by someone else, the librarian has lost control of the institution. In one library such an official, with direct access to the board, was later made librarian for a term during which the once outstanding library slowly deteriorated so badly that it affected the morale of neighboring libraries.

An assistant in charge of these matters, subject to instructions from, reporting to and clearing policies with the librarian, is a logical and highly useful lieutenant. If the librarian has competent help for personnel, fiscal, office and purchasing routines, and for making specialized studies in methods and costs, as he should have in other aspects of the work, then the logical circle of abilities will be properly coordinated under one direction.

QUALIFICATIONS OF THE LIBRARIAN

Before discussing the role of assistant librarian as the librarian's chief aide, we describe next the qualifications of the librarian, which are so greatly involved in librarian-assistant librarian relations.

The varied activities, the desirable background of education and training, and the community relationships described above, make it clear that the choice of a competent librarian is not solved by appointing a job hunter, or necessarily by promoting someone in the local library and presumably experienced. The library's clientele and the taxpayers have a right to expect that the choice of a library head will involve an energetic search for the person best qualified. He must fully understand the responsibilities and have the abilities to meet them with distinction.

An able librarian or department head can draw a library, a department or a branch up out of the doldrums, out of a state of despair, and in a few years or even months, can turn it into a highly efficient agency for good, where staff and public are enthusiastic. And under a poor librarian or head it can fall apart, its best personnel leave in disappointment and frustration, its public services deteriorate, its staff and morale sink down again into a dull mediocrity. Qualifications which make the difference include the following five factors.

Ability in Leadership

A leader needs convictions as to library functions and programs and the ability to convince the library staff, the trustees, local government and the

community that the program is worthy and sound. This motivates and inspires teamwork, devotion and morale in a common cause, and is marked also by a feeling that the leader has stability. "Dynamic leadership is reflected in the drive and esprit de corps of the organization; conversely, any group that suffers long periods of uninspired direction is certain to run down—not only physically but spiritually."⁸

That a librarian as a leader must be a domineering and compelling personality, wielding personal power and forcing others to his will, owing to so-called ascendancy traits, is an outmoded conception; such traits militate against the better leadership of today, which calls for the talent to encourage and develop group initiative, and to organize the ideas and experience of one's colleagues. Such leadership is not marked by quick decisions and snap judgments on a succession of crises, but by careful study and by advance thinking and planning that foresee and prevent unfavorable situations from arising, e.g., who shall replace a department head if one resigns or retires? It calls for penetrating analysis and synthesis built on the ideas of others. Every librarian inherits some tough personnel cases; by looking ahead he may avoid creating any himself.

Ability to Develop the Staff

This starts with a real interest in and appreciation of each individual, but depends on clear and frank appraisal and good judgment in appointment and promotion. It involves constant effort to keep posted on the abilities and accomplishments of each worker, without favoritism. A successful librarian will not always delegate the initiative in discovering or the decisions in choosing personnel, especially in the upper positions. Most library heads have a wide acquaintance with notable possible candidates, both personally or by inquiries among other librarians who themselves are good judges of ability. The personality, philosophy and attainments of those who take key positions as his colleagues are more important to a good librarian than almost any other element in his work, and he will control their selection by being certain that he has considered the best candidates.

Initiative and Resourcefulness

No one can supply the deficiencies of the librarian in comprehending needs, planning ahead, finding ways to get things in motion, surmounting difficulties and getting results. "One major aspect of an executive's job is the accomplishing of things which faint hearts and timid souls declare to be impossible."⁹ Keeping everything on an even keel involves logical thinking and an open mind, to separate proposals into their essential parts, evaluate them and create a consistent organization and set of activities, simply and economically conceived, with foresight as to probable costs.

Getting Along with People

Without this quality any librarian is almost certain to fail, for he has to deal all day with a variety of persons inside and outside the library. At times he is a teacher to his staff. If the word *helpfulness* is put here, it may transfer the attention of the librarian to what he can do to help others with their projects or problems, instead of being overbearing, on the defensive, suspicious, unsympathetic or devoting too much attention to himself and his own ideas. Approachability goes with friendliness and helpfulness and is a great asset, but this does not mean familiarity, or consuming time in pointless conversations. It does mean frank and friendly criticism and suggestions which a good librarian freely but tactfully expresses to his close professional associates.

Faith and Conviction

Enthusiasm, buoyancy in the face of difficulties and disappointments, physical stamina, conviction as to the outcome, tireless persistence to get results, emotional resiliency, a degree of calmness and poise, frankness and firmness with tact and patience, some measure of consistency in ideas and decisions, and above all the courage to decide to undertake and to persist until accomplishment—these are characteristics of a good librarian, though only a paragon has them all. Each librarian approaches his work with his own individual background of viewpoint and experience; no two librarians will ever manage a given library in the same way. One of the assets and attractions of library work is that so many actual and potential librarians are blessed with many or most of these qualities; but the demand for such persons is always greater than the supply.

When Qualifications Are Ignored

Misconceptions of the librarian's qualifications have led to disastrous results. Because librarians are supposedly "bookish" it has been imagined that they can hardly be good managers of other persons and their work, of affairs and of funds. So a new untrained person, who knows nothing of the methods and organization of a public or college library, is appointed on the ground that he has been a "businessman" or has had experience in what seems a fairly similar line¹⁰ such as an unsuccessful school principal, a newspaper editor, a retired postmaster, a professor who uses the library a great deal or one who knows and works better with the faculty than the outgoing college librarian.¹¹

In public and college libraries such anomalous leadership and direction have thrown the library off the main line in its public services, owing to distorted notions; subjected it to political pressure so that staff and morale

have deteriorated; stimulated unessential new activities, expensive new paperwork and positions and general disregard of economy. It has antagonized first-class professional workers within the library who, if they could, have departed one by one, leaving a mediocre, unhappy staff and poor services. Few such unfortunate appointments have benefitted their libraries.

As the mayor of a large city admitted, "Mr. X is a prominent lawyer; he's considered quite a scholar and bookman. When he pressured us for a judgeship, we knew we couldn't make him a judge but we thought he would make a good librarian. He has handled people all his life and we certainly thought he could run that library." Outcome, a community uprising against this librarian, who was not a librarian, with petitions, public hearings, a campaign, followed by changes in the library board and a new trained capable director, who got things rolling again.

THE ASSISTANT LIBRARIAN

To serve as an assistant librarian is a privilege, especially if one's chief is considerate and efficient. If he is also a scholar, an educator, a leader and inspirer, his assistant librarian can serve a long term with real enjoyment, for with such a chief he will be conscious each day that he is developing his own effectiveness. If his chief is of small calibre, suspicious, self-seeking, inefficient or uninspired, life will be tough enough to stiffen his character, and he will observe administrative methods as they are and reflect on how they might be, and gather rich experience when the call comes to a librarianship.

No adequate study seems available as to the functions of this important position. The status of a Man Friday to the librarian is more frankly expressed by the title *assistant to the librarian*, and in such a case the job description or the letters and conversation of the librarian before the appointment is made should make it clear that what he actually wants is someone who will do his leg work, be at his beck and call, get up reports and studies on administrative matters, and make himself generally useful to the librarian, an important position in itself.

Assuming full-time service, most applicants for the assistant librarian position expect to be what the term implies—a sharer of the librarian's administrative work, in which certain administrative functions will be delegated with authority to make decisions, plus special pieces of administrative work assigned to be finished and reported to the librarian. As the two persons work closely together, often in adjoining rooms, and as the assistant librarian is generally younger and less experienced, or if older has been passed over for lack of the qualities required for a head librarianship, this question of authority and the degree to which the librarian shall interfere,

make suggestions, take the initiative or take the matter out of the assistant librarian's hands is a delicate one, involving the self-respect of both and depending on their sensitive reactions to inevitable daily give and take.¹²

An assistant librarian or an assistant to the librarian should not be called on for duties of which a competent secretary could relieve them, both as to routines and minor contacts and interruptions. The assistant librarian should be a formulator of ideas. He is often assigned or delegated such duties as:

1. Personnel work, recruiting, interviews, recommendations up to the point of decision. Depending on the size of the library and trustee functions, he may appoint directly to clerical and custodial posts, or he may screen professionals ready for interview and appointment by the librarian, or for recommendation by the librarian to the board. On many administrative matters even the librarian has to get trustee approval before acting; the assistant librarian need not feel aggrieved if he cannot be completely responsible. For the librarian is the person held responsible by board and community for what everyone in the library does.

2. Study of problems, including the gathering of data; research and formulating recommendations for decision. The assistant librarian or an assistant to the librarian, with training and the perspective of successful ideas and performance can make himself a dependable administrative aide.

3. General supervision of one of the major aspects of the library service, such as the adult circulation and reference departments of a larger library, or all the book selection and preparatory processes, or all the branch and extension work, or the central library's public departments. This means not merely the operation of any one department, but relieving the librarian of part of his administrative and supervisory work, i.e., reducing his span of control, as noted in Chapter 10, on organization. In other words, several department heads report to the first assistant instead of to the librarian. A few very large libraries, not covered in this book, have two assistant librarians, each handling large segments of the librarian's work.

4. More frequently the assistant librarian gives half or considerable time as an actual department head and assists the librarian in the remainder. In one sense this is an economy device but it may be sensible in libraries up to the 75,000 population class, which may not be justified in paying a full-time assistant librarian's salary. Partly because of these variations in administrative work, and in ability of performance, the assistant librarian's salary suffers from conflicting viewpoints. It seems fair that it should be close to that of the librarian. This is complicated in cases where he must spend half time as a department head, for he may be penalized because not all his time goes to higher administrative work.¹³

5. An assistant librarian generally is in charge of the library in the absence of the librarian; represents the librarian at meetings and in various connections inside and outside; confers with his chief on matters of policy and gives thought to the librarian's problems and points of view; notifies him of developments affecting morale, public opinion and individual staff problems; initiates and

suggests ideas that will help in any aspect of the work; prepares reports based on data gathered by him, as to changes in methods, new services, proposals, etc. (see "Completed Staff Work" in Chapter 6); acts as liaison between staff and librarian to whatever degree the librarian wishes or permits; and presents to all concerned a strict unanimity with the librarian, so he may be in fact an assistant, in viewpoint, purpose and sympathies—a loyal lieutenant. When mutual respect and loyalty evaporate, the assistant will wish to seek another post.

The head of a smaller library, moving up to be first assistant in a larger one, may find it irksome to subordinate his own former "premiership" and support the ideas and decisions of another person who, he soon realizes, has numerous weaknesses. In considering such a position, one needs to question and know definitely its scope and authority, and to judge how one will get along in daily contacts and adjustments with the new chief. It is seldom wise to appoint a first assistant with any commitment or intimation that he may someday succeed to the throne; too many unforeseen factors make succession an unhappy gamble, liable to embarrassments and frustrations.

In smaller libraries someone long on the staff often serves as first assistant, to be called on when the librarian is absent and to serve in his place in various capacities, but not as to decisions, planning and leadership. A sensible librarian with an able first assistant, especially one fairly young and ambitious, should help him develop administrative ability as fully and as rapidly as possible. No librarian ever profited by holding someone back, nor derived much pleasure from wondering whether he himself would be overtaken and eclipsed. A good librarian finds great satisfaction if he can develop and encourage younger persons, perhaps as department heads and assistant librarians, to go out to larger positions and salaries than his own.

Under almost any assignment of work, a good assistant can serve as bridge between the librarian and the departments. As a discreet, considerate additional supervisor and observer of the whole internal working of the library, he can make himself a substantial helper to all concerned, rather than trying to further his own personal ambitions and attract attention to his importance and ability. The word *assist* is the key word in both titles: assistant librarian and assistant to the librarian; it is a word full of meaning.

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CHAPTER 6

Some Management Methods

Whoever heads a library, department, branch or unit of work, becomes perforce a leader, manager and instructor of others. Since he has to organize activities into soundly related parts, he should have a say in the choice of personnel. He is the overall supervisor. He has to plan, direct and get results. He needs to understand and strengthen his own management methods and abilities.

Numerous aspects of administration are discussed in other chapters. Here we consider such underlying methods of management as getting things done by working with and through others, planning, formulating ideas, policies and decisions and delegating duties and authority.¹⁻³⁰ Delegation is partly a matter of organization and its follow-up, but it is tied to the development of executive ability. And both delegation and executive development are influenced by the overhead conviction that staff participation is vital to planning and operating.

STAFF PARTICIPATION

Industrial, business, public and library administration reflect a growing nationwide realization that any enterprise will be more productive for all concerned if the work, the ideas and the status of each worker are treated with respect. Surveys show that beyond salaries and job security, workers crave recognition for what they contribute to an enterprise. They like to know what the problems are; they like the sense of belonging; they can help find solutions.

Participation is particularly appropriate in librarianship as a source of morale and of ideas and as a management method. If realistic it can become a powerful constructive influence on every staff member; it affects every library user.¹¹ Cooperation in doing springs from participation in planning and decision making, and management includes both planning and doing. Participation is not a gesture. Trustees and librarian must be participation-

minded, i.e., open-minded, objective, receptive to the ideas of others, not convinced of their own all-sufficient wisdom, not resentful of frankness or criticism. Participation falls flat, down the line, unless all those in charge believe in and promote it.

The Library Administrative Circle*



Whoever is in charge of any library operation has to see that continual attention is given to each element. In section 5, for example, if those engaged in public services are not being supervised (in section 4) and are not improving the service, then whoever is responsible for scrutiny and measurement in section 6 has to discover the lag and have it rectified.

*(Adapted from U.S. Army. *Civilian Personnel Pamphlet*, 41 D, 1957, p. 12.)

But many librarians "cannot take it"; they neither seek nor wish to have ideas from their colleagues, because of false pride, fear of "letting loose a hornet's nest," as one phrased it, or aversion to the thought that the general run of assistants can have valuable ideas, even more initiative than the head himself and more resourcefulness in working out new ways to new goals. In business and industry, stock ownership encourages each employee's realization that his own welfare is tied up with the company's. In library work this commercial incentive is missing. But when changes are to be made, the reactions and cooperation of a staff are greatly improved by their knowing what it is all about and sharing in decisions.

This does not mean that the staff is to run the library, or that some vociferous proponent can build pressure on librarian or trustees to follow a

course against their judgment. "Bottom-up" management,¹² having everyone from the bottom of the staff upward understand and take part in what goes on, does not mean turning responsibility upside down. Good participation is a matter of integrating the goals and viewpoints of the staff with those which promote the library's welfare. The librarian and department heads get paid for carrying, not abdicating, the responsibility for administrative leadership and judgment, for decisions and results. The better the leadership, the freer, franker and more widespread are suggestion, discussion and constructive criticism from all hands, and the keener is staff realization that everything is being considered with a view only to the public interest.

Some Limits on Participation

Participation can go beyond common sense. Library users in cities of any size who arrive on Saturday afternoons or on a downtown or neighborhood shopping night, ready to look up their reference reading, and find the doors open are gratified that library officials have not acceded to selfish pressure for schedules which the staff but not the public may prefer. The librarian or department head who sincerely intends to share administrative problems with his staff and to benefit by their counsel will approach this in a gradual, natural, unheralded manner. He will not assign others to spend time formulating policies and practices unless he feels that something will be produced which he can accept, and he must retain a final veto. He will not imagine it to be democratic management when he ratifies a majority vote of staff or department heads for decisions of major consequence which he thinks mistaken. It is a specious idea that there can be "one big happy family," that the director or department head is in a popularity contest, where all try to get along without facing constructive disagreement, problem solving and occasional conflict, and let the library drift.¹³

Communicating Library Information to the Staff

Participation starts by acquainting each employee with the library's life and progress, and with his own job and status.¹⁴ He should write out and hand in some of his questions and problems in getting oriented. Even the small library needs a few pages of facts about itself. Current problems will be explained to all the staff by straightforward reporting, questions and discussion at staff meetings, and by seeing that the staff knows details and reasons for new rules and procedures before the public is informed, and before they are posted on the bulletin board.

The "grapevine" method of passing on gossip and misinformation indicates that heads need to give out correct information on topics that workers are most curious about. Good communication is sincere, friendly, frank,

continuous day-to-day interchange of information. It does not need elaborate systems and channels, though the librarian does have to be sure that exchange of information is going on.¹⁵

Help from a Few or All?

The stream of literature and a National Association of Suggestion Systems, with booming membership, reflect a growing practice of making awards to employees for helpful ideas leading to improvements and savings. A few metropolitan libraries have consistent suggestion systems. Some libraries frequently ask everyone to write a top suggestion and send it to the department head or librarian in a sealed envelope; they offer a \$5 or \$10 prize each month and a substantial reward each year for the most usable and important ones, with staff or public recognition of them. All suggestions, even fantastic ones, are acknowledged, appreciated and carefully considered and the originator personally gets some indication of the progress or outcome of the idea. Suggestions should not disappear into a void.

These staff suggestions may concern detailed routines and methods in one's own department or work, how to improve personal relations with individual readers, how to interpret the library to readers and to the public at large, or policies, principles and projects for bettering the library and its service, or matters of organization and administration.¹⁶

An open-minded staff committee can put suggestions into shape, take them up with heads concerned, get some decision or report, and satisfy the suggestor. If the decision is negative, the reasons should be explained.

The Chief's Attention to Suggestions

A staff quickly measures administrative cordiality to new ideas. Does the librarian or department head have an open door but a closed mind? Confidence and enthusiasm mount when it is discovered that the chief is not too busy, but interested in details, knows what is going on, understands the value of a suggestion and does something about it. Within a department, suggestions may have consequences to the individual, maybe resentment and opposition from the head, and strained relationships. The librarian's task is to develop department heads; their task is to build the administrative interest of assistants, until all place the improvement of their department above personal pride and sensitiveness. He needs also to be the coordinator, gatherer-up and information spreader between departments, to avoid confusion and cross purposes.

Recognition

Psychologists and specialists in industrial relations are well aware that morale thrives on appreciation and on favorable comment for good work.

A few large libraries send personal letters of welcome and good-bye; some give a cash award or honorable mention for special accomplishments, notable examples of good work or new methods used, not overlooking clerical and mechanical work such as mending, binding, typing, as well as booklists, cataloging, reference work and book selection. Staff recognition has to be handled with care and tact, but it need not be neglected even in the small library; a few words of commendation take a moment and no "machinery." Trained workers wish an opportunity to do something interesting on their own. In a 1957 study of 20,000 scientists the five top factors in "psychic income" were: interest potential of the work, management integrity, opportunity to discover and do creative work, opportunity to move up and caliber of supervision.¹⁷

Staff Meetings

Staff members may easily misunderstand library affairs—financing, control exercised by board, librarian and department head, the responsibility of each assistant to help build up the library's efficient service. A good staff manual is important.¹⁸ So is the well-planned meeting of the whole staff, i.e., all who can be released at one time, as is usual in probably three-fourths of the libraries of any size. Even a small staff can hardly have good communication without planned staff meetings. For a librarian with a small staff of six or eight to confer only with his first assistant hardly fills the bill. Pressure for time is one problem. Some library buildings are so arranged that meetings are held first thing in the morning, in or within view of the circulation room; the few readers who arrive so early are taken care of while discussion proceeds.

Time costs can be justified with a carefully planned program, preliminary work assigned and ready, each item thoroughly prepared, questions formulated, data gathered, a substantial presentation of alternative solutions ready from someone, a good leader to guide and encourage discussion and keep to the point, definite results expected and insisted on, restraint on the loquacious and impractical who irk their colleagues, encouragement for the quiet and retiring and for new assistants with fresh and often worthwhile viewpoints, a brief summary of what the meeting accomplished; and a follow-up after the meeting with individuals who can give fuller and franker response, especially on policy matters.¹⁹ If per-hour salary cost, for time consumed by each participant at staff meetings and conferences, is counted up, the total may be staggering. One library, population 150,000, found four thousand hours spent annually, equivalent to two man years. Are the measurable results worthwhile? The library in question cut down on its meetings.

A good staff meeting means well-guided discussion of administrative problems and rules of general concern (procedures in individual depart-

ments will first be threshed out therein); staff problems, salary and other matters of status; and problems and policies of the library itself. Summaries of debatable questions and what other libraries are doing about them and of recommendations from staff committees lend substance and variety. What does the staff wish to know about or to complain about? Specifics, including unwelcome facts and ideas, are better than generalities.

The librarian in a few minutes can talk about problems and policies uppermost in his own thinking, such as the budget, the history of present situations on which there seems misunderstanding, his hopes and dreams for the library. He will not monopolize or dominate the meeting, may attend for only part of the time, and will not evade matters of individual personal concern to the assistants. Many staff meetings are planned, chaired and run by a staff committee, but they may need guidance. Chapter 15 discusses departmental meetings.

Committee Assignments

Staff committees as a device for putting everyone to work, ostensibly for the common good of staff and library, can easily become a nuisance, absorbing hours on trivialities. But efficient committees can get at and digest pros and cons of problems, can put things into shape for department heads', librarians' and sometimes trustees' consideration; can discuss, make recommendations, sometimes decide and take action, because members are chosen to get results. But the committee function is an advisory one, to help the head make up his mind, not to make it up for him.²⁰

What about the few always chosen for important assignments, and the others who never get on a committee? There is no good way out; need there be a poor one? Committees can multiply, to cover staff sociability, handling and simplifying staff gifts, and routine matters. Persons with administrative aptitude to analyze, study and prepare material may work on tougher assignments. Preparation of staff or departmental instruction manuals, job-instruction sheets for special procedures, any formulation of detail call for wide sharing of work; the unnoticed then often make the best contributions.

Advisory Groups

Even in a small staff, librarians and department heads draw valuable counsel from a few colleagues who, like themselves, are responsible for executive thinking and decisions in their own fields, and can approach problems practically, with some thought as to costs, necessity, public opinion, staff reactions and better service. Two or three with useful viewpoints and judgment, with conscience and courage to disagree with the

chief, can formulate ideas and decisions. They need tact and discretion in evaluating candidates and threshing out personnel difficulties.

Staff Organizations

Any staff of more than twenty-five will benefit from an organization guided and controlled by the staff itself, to accomplish purposes affecting staff status and welfare. Some librarians and trustees resent this idea on the illogical ground that they themselves are thinking of and achieving all the benefits the staff should expect. Their per-capita budgets and salary scales usually belie this. A staff association is justified even when its clear objective is to agitate courageously and create pressure to compel its own library officials to wake up and remedy bad conditions. It need not content itself with routine activities, e.g., committees on social affairs, on staff gifts and sick visits, on welcoming new recruits, and mere expressions of sentiment on crucial issues. Instead it should make salary surveys, handle loan funds and encourage frank expression of staff opinion.

In larger cities the staff union, affiliated with national organizations, may be the only recourse despite sentiment among professional librarians that they want no connection with any outside union. Orman found in 1940, when "550 librarians spoke"²¹ as to librarians unionizing, that 32 per cent said Yes and 61 per cent said No. But as the McDiarmids justly commented, "It is a dubious answer to the question to say that organized union activity is incompatible with a profession, if the economic status . . . remains indefinitely and hopelessly low."²²

More librarians and boards than will admit it need a strong, determined, unionized, outside-affiliated group to drive them to rectify economic shortcomings.²³ A staff association dominated by high-minded workers primarily interested in the institution and its service is naturally favored by officers and staffs. But it needs to find ways and means to secure fair salaries and conditions for its members, even when librarian and trustees wish it would keep quiet.

GETTING THINGS DONE THROUGH OTHERS

Administration is largely a matter of working with and getting results through trustees, public officials, community groups and leaders, but primarily through every staff member. Ideas, policies, planning, decisions and directions primarily involve personal relationships. An adaptation to librarianship of a summary of ideas from many successful business and industrial leaders may be useful.²⁴

1. A real leader convinced of the soundness of his ideas and program will make a staff wish to follow his policies and program, rather than forcing the ideas through by the "hard sell" method.

2. Motives and attitudes of each individual staff member are the main tools

the executive uses; these need appreciative continuous study. Security is the main drive in people. They respond when they and their work are recognized as important. Commendation may spur one person to new heights while it may only inflate another, who perhaps will respond to constructive criticism; a third may wilt under criticism. A good executive hunts for the factor that makes each worker tick. He also looks into backgrounds of personal history and home life that create negative attitudes. Tactful drawing-out of subordinates can reveal invaluable guidance information.

3. Be a good listener. The fastest way to discover assistants' motives, reactions, worries, personalities, touchy points and pet prides is to encourage them to talk and to ask questions, with assurance their confidences will not be revealed. It takes someone's time to plan and to draw people out. Both are essential to the executive job.

4. Criticize or reprove constructively. Get all the facts and go over the seemingly pertinent ones with the colleague and see if he agrees about the difficulty, encouraging him to suggest a constructive course of action. Better to criticize methods than motives, preferably preceding the criticism by mentioning some good quality or piece of work.

5. Criticize in private, a rule broken every day in hundreds of organizations. Reprimands before others cause humiliation and resentment, instead of a desire to do better. Any negative remark to a subordinate head with members of his department present undermines his authority and morale.

6. Commend in public. Sincere commendation, carefully expressed, has multiple impact, especially if others hear it. It raises one's standing and self-confidence and helps develop abilities among those who will later be executives. The person praised should be the one who deserves it, but others involved should get recognition also. Playing up the positive and constructive aspects of the work beats negative and critical attitudes. It makes everyone happier.

7. Being considerate helps build a strong, hard-working, loyal executive team. A good head is courteous to his staff, puts himself in their place before making decisions affecting them, realizes they have tough problems of their own, both job and personal. He gets more effective work by respecting his colleagues' pride, personality and self-respect as assets. He gives them a chance to do things on their own.

8. Taking credit for oneself that belongs to another destroys initiative and willingness to take responsibility. Giving proper recognition for doing the job brings the executive credit for building an able staff.

9. Overbearing domination throws a wet blanket on all hands and breeds yes men. A dominant executive and subordinates with initiative do not get along; the best will get out. Driving people is never as resultful as eager co-operation with a leader. The able executive thinks of his staff as working *with* him, not *for* him.

10. Show interest in and appreciation of the other person. Be human. Not all people are warmhearted, but an executive can warm his relations with his staff.

11. Wishes made known by suggestions or requests get better results than orders or commands. If you find that only orders will work, relationships need mending.

12. In making requests or giving instructions, explain the reasons; people like to know not only what they're doing, but why, as discussed in this chapter under "Staff Participation" and in Chapter 16, on supervision.

13. The head sets the staff's style and attitudes. If irregular in his habits, late for appointments, careless about facts, bored in attitude, they will be too. The right sort of person follows a good example more eagerly than a bad one.

14. Consistency is reassuring. One who flies off the handle and sets off fireworks frightens his associates into their shells; one who gyrates wildly in reaction, mood and manner bewilders them. "Unsettling" was the adjective one staff applied to its chief. A staff wholeheartedly follows the leader whose course is steady, but purposeful and resultful, and whose reactions are predictable.

15. Make it evident that you have confidence in assistants and expect them to do their best; they tend to perform accordingly.

16. Admit errors in actions and ideas. No junior expects his chief to be infallible, no executive loses face when he admits he's wrong—if not too often! Fairness and honesty are prime executive assets. If one's mistakes are analyzed and not defended, they may lead to improvement in decisions, in methods and in dealing with others.²⁰

17. People carry out best their own ideas, feeling a personal responsibility to prove them workable. Sometimes the seeds of ideas can be planted in the minds of others, and will be carried out as their own.

18. Care in what one says and in how one says it will avoid misunderstanding and hurt feelings, even in seemingly chance remarks. For an important talk with a colleague plan in advance what you're going to say, choosing the words with care. What the head says has special impact. An unintended inflection of the voice, careless choice of words, thoughtless remarks perhaps in jest, by-passing a subject a subordinate has brought up, may breed misunderstanding, frustration and insecurity.

19. Moderate grouching, in small doses, serves as a safety valve. Most persons, even under good conditions, do more or less grouching. But bad-tempered, continual, personal griping has to be looked into and the cause corrected.

20. Head librarians can give their assistants goals, a sense of direction, something to strive for and to achieve. They need to know where they're going, what they're doing and why, to plan their course intelligently and work efficiently. A good assistant is not satisfied with routine unless he clearly understands the relation between his day-to-day work and his larger goals.

21. Let your people know where they stand as to strengths and weaknesses, and performance. Periodic ratings of assistants are most effective when discussed with them in frank, carefully prepared individual interviews, to bolster weak points and clear up misunderstandings. This calls for fairness, frankness and kindness.

PLANNING

What planning is there to be done in a library? The librarian, the department or branch head has to plan almost everything listed in the table of

contents of this book, its application to his particular library, including the coverage and handling of his own job, even his day's work. The librarian is the library's or department's chief planner; though his staff helps him plan, the trustees have to approve his plans. And public officials help put the plans into effect by ratifying budget appropriations therefor.

The head who has been several years in his position may ask himself the same questions as one newly arrived to take over a library or department he has never seen. What is good and bad, weak and strong, about the present situation in the department or the library, its financing, housing, organization, staff, services, morale, costs? He is looking things over in a general way to appraise them, but with a view to doing something about them. He will ask his staff for much pertinent information. Before he takes action, he will have decided on a priority as to what is needed, what should be done, by whom and how. The ideal or pattern of what he thinks should be is formulated in his mind, unconsciously but surely, by his background of knowledge and convictions. Executive thinking is built also on the daily changing mental picture of what goes on in his library, in libraries elsewhere, in his community and in the world of ideas, and very definitely on what his colleagues think. He cannot take too narrow a view of internal details as they are and have been, nor decide on some plan in a vacuum. Administrative planning is either thought out carefully in its larger relationships, or it will be approached piece by piece to meet some special situation, but incompletely and often inconsistently as to the whole.

The head of a library, a branch or a department has to look upon planning as his own particular duty and keep some time for it. But when? Inevitably he has to do much of it in his off-duty time.

Problem Solving

Most planning falls into three categories: (a) immediate problems brought to the head by others for solution; (b) those which he as a good leader and supervisor should be aware of, whether or not anyone else is; and (c) looking ahead. All three require that he keep himself constantly informed on developments. He can keep a list of problems that press for settlement, and refer to it every few days to get something cleared up.²⁸

But planning also implies thinking on a level higher than details, rules or methods. Planning is the executive's basic job and routines should not absorb so much time as to prevent adequate planning, which among other steps includes:

1. Foreseeing and preparing for new situations likely to arise, and seeing that the right things and not the wrong things happen. For example, how to prepare in advance for the sudden loss of a strong department head or assistant.

2. Seeing that the library, the trustees, the librarian and staff, do not get pushed around, but that the library has a program worked out and that it shall

prevail despite external and internal lag and pressures, for example, that essential branches are built, but not unessential ones demanded by noisy groups.

3. Identifying a problem, defining and limiting its coverage, while discovering more and more of its component elements and its consequences.

4. Calling on the help of one or a few colleagues best qualified on the matter at hand, for frequent conference to analyze the problem or proposal and its parts, and to outline a detailed course of action.

5. Seeing to it that planning is not so weak, long drawn out, or aims at such perfection, that nothing important gets done.

Policy and Program Planning

Frequently developments and discussion about a problem lead to a statement of policy, which is most effective in written form and is a commitment to some guiding overall plan or principle. Librarian and department head need to express and explain, as at staff meetings, the ideals, objectives and philosophy which underlie the library or department program or plan of action. Policies provide the broad framework or preamble for such a program. Policy and plan succeed better if they are worked out together; otherwise in execution discrepancies may soon develop unexpectedly.²⁷ Inquiry in various quarters, including A. L. A. Headquarters Library, and *Library Literature*, produced only three or four such library program statements for staff use despite all that has been written as to the administrative need for such statements.

When those who are carrying out a policy feel that it needs amendment, it should be reconsidered and possibly altered—a further proof that policies should not be one-man pronouncements, but carefully developed by several minds.

Policy does not mean sets of rules, statements of details, or a series of job descriptions; it is a guiding principle. "Policy" outlines a long-range purpose, based on considered principles of human relations and library objectives. It calls upon management at all levels, including the trustees, to reaffirm and reinforce this purpose in day-by-day decisions and actions. Naturally, as one of their functions, the trustees should know the history, the pros and cons of policy proposals, for they are supposed to approve and authorize policies for action. Policies still leave leeway for interpretation as time passes and new situations arise. Policy statements, with action program, as to finances, as to personnel matters, as to many aspects of library operation, are useful in many ways, including their clarification of questions which concern large segments of the library organization. But they need periodic review and updating to meet conditions that are always changing.²⁸ Static policy is self-destroying; it fails to fit into the times.

A head cannot always depend completely on those, no matter how competent and well intentioned, to whom he has logically delegated such definite problems. Many matters may be delegated to trained and well-rated

colleagues for careful analysis and recommended solution, and still they will not be satisfactorily solved, because for example the chief fails to compel colleagues to complete unwelcome tasks. Such considerations and problems are tied to both policy planning and supervision.

Long-range planning can be facilitated by a large work sheet with columns, or a series of pages, one for each department or activity and each administrative function. On this the librarian or his secretary can enumerate points needing attention, and make notes of related ideas, but its chief value is to remind him, every few days, of all the various aspects of his work. He will delegate them to others, but he is still responsible for each and needs to keep a well-balanced interest in them all, no matter who else is supposed to cover each; perhaps he has overlooked seeing that someone is. An administrative diagram of the organization is seldom altered; it grows too familiar to compel thinking and action, and it covers only the framework of operations, not the performance in any one of them. A calendar of recurring events to provide advance notice as to obligations or deadlines, such as starting budget preparation, reports, Book Week, is helpful.

One successful head, besides routine planning on each day's flock of problems, kept up a steady improvement in his library by frequently singling out what appeared to be the weakest or least satisfactory department, unit, service or method. With help and advice from others he concentrated on the problems involved until after some weeks or months this particular problem would be cleared up. Perhaps this meant waiting for a resignation, retirement or transfer, perhaps a large amount of study and conference was involved, a reorganization of methods, often a reassignment of persons and work, but always it involved better supervision. It did mean that what had seemed worst had been improved. If a few such major administrative improvements can be made each year the whole library is stimulated. The idea is just as applicable in a department.

IDEAS

Plainly the last three paragraphs pertain to supervision, as well as planning, for planning is based on ideas, and many practical ideas come from supervision and lead to decisions. Planning, ideas and decisions are closely linked and are given separate headings here only to make each more definite.

An administrative head needs to see that two types of ideas are welcomed: those gathered to settle a given problem which has arisen or will shortly, and those which should be constantly flowing in as a stimulus for larger and longer-range planning. He should encourage ideas:

From his own observation, improved by a definite effort to "see what he can

see" and to look more carefully into what he thinks he sees, reflecting on it and preferably reviewing it by discussion with others.

From department heads or those assigned to special functions, who should encourage significant ideas from their staffs and relay them. Many untrained clerical workers are prolific in ideas often overlooked or disregarded by their own heads.

From the public, both library users and others, by making it known that their ideas will be welcomed, e.g., publicizing some improvement resulting from a reader idea. What non-users think of the library and why they don't use it is unknown land; the library which draws out this information and utilizes it will get somewhere.

From reports of other libraries; visiting and having staff visit them, not to tell them "what we do," but to look open-mindedly for new viewpoints and better methods. The heads of libraries of similar size in a number of areas, as in northern Indiana and in six New England cities, come together regularly to discuss administrative problems, including fuller use of each other's collections.

From the fresh viewpoints drawn from reading in the fields of business, office methods, building, public administration, perhaps on architecture and construction, and on cultural subjects, as art and music, history, education, science.

The administrator has to gather and evaluate these ideas and translate them into action; as trouble-shooter he has to overcome difficulties, he has to win the approval or consent of those chiefly affected, and after the ideas are in operation he must review the results. Unless ideas are going to be carried through, which is not always easy, there is not much use in spending all the time involved in the preliminaries.²⁹

Osborn, promoter of creative thinking and of "brainstorming," now used by many successful concerns,³⁰ gives eleven major hints for this process: "Don't be afraid to stick your neck out. Don't kill your ideas in their infancy. Don't oversell; state your case moderately. Don't give up too soon; keep suggesting (he cites a man who was considered a pest; to quiet him a trial was made of his idea, which had failed previously because not properly carried out, and soon 52 employees were doing a better job with greater production than 210 had been doing). Watch your timing. Don't always try to sell the whole idea all at once. Plan the way to put your idea across. Make your idea easy to accept; offer to test it. Put some drama into your presentation. Throw in alternative ideas too. Put these hints into a winning combination."³¹

DECISIONS

With this wealth of ideas, which may overwhelm some persons, the next step is to evaluate suggestions and ideas and come to some decision. Decision making is perhaps the major test of administrative ability and

judgment. If it is sound it sets up a new chain of consequences and events and should result in progress. It involves three general steps: the definition of the issue and the investigation needed to understand it; the consideration of the alternative possibilities and the consequences of each; and the resulting choice or action to be followed.

The difficulty of making an objective decision is seen in the contrast between two kinds of persons—those who wait for success and those who work for it. Some persons shrink from anything that may not be a success. Unless it is they'll have nothing to do with it. Others see success as so important that they give devoted effort and refuse to be defeated until it comes true. These two philosophies can scarcely produce the same decision for a problem.

EVALUATION OF PURPOSES AND IDEAS

(As applied to functions of librarians and department heads)

What Are Criteria for Decisions?

1. Appropriateness to the purpose. Purpose and scope of the library's program, as well as of the proposal.
2. Recognizing and defining the problem as exactly as possible; seldom possible at first thought, it may arise specifically or evolve from an array of generalities and it clarifies only with time and study.
3. Where does it fit into present organization and activities? Or is it totally new and additional? How influenced by period of inflation or depression?
4. Does it duplicate similar activity, present or planned, of some other organization? What other idea or project is in competition with it?
5. How pressing? Is it immediate or long range? Though action and putting into effect may not be necessarily immediate, it may be vital to start the chain of developments leading to later action.

Procedure for Evaluation (Promptness is desirable)

7. Assigning someone adequate to study the problem, i.e., be responsible for the gathering of fact and opinion to place before those who decide.
8. Realizing from the start that the librarian as leader of opinion must avoid overinfluencing the others; but he should not follow what may be poorly formulated ideas.
9. Stating the problem for all to understand and weigh. Inevitably requires a series of restatements, each more exact, with previously unforeseen details, ramifications and objections.
10. Gathering professional literature, data from other libraries, nonlibrary parallels. How?

11. Gathering reader opinion and probable reactions. How?
12. Gathering staff opinion. How? Possible repercussions at all parts of the organization, especially those most affected.²²
13. Gathering frank, critical opinion of small group of top leaders of the staff, who appreciate larger aspects, i.e., financial, political, public opinion, staff reactions, etc.
14. Presenting to trustees and getting their reactions, at this point only in preliminary form. Postpone until completely formulated?
15. Finding or foreseeing attitude of public officials.

Later Criteria and Procedures

If the project or problem has survived to this point it requires still further study:

16. Analyzing and estimating cost factors; immediate investment; whether annual costs will increase, etc.
17. Listing of alternative solutions, including "do nothing about it."
18. Determining the consequences of each of these.
19. Comparative evaluation of these sets of consequences. "It is obviously impossible to know *all* his alternatives or *all* their consequences, and this impossibility is a very important departure of actual behavior from the motive of objective rationality."²³
20. Foreseeing valid and specious objections from inside and outside, weighing these, perhaps forestalling or counteracting, if a proposal is likely to be adopted, or if a refusal may arouse criticism.
21. Getting each employee to see what difficulties there may be in foreseeing the resulting reactions of all concerned. These may include opinions of citizens who have never even been in the library.
22. Careful restudy to foresee all the detailed steps and difficulties, persons involved, assignment of responsibilities, follow-up, in order to formulate complete statement of pros and cons.
23. Balancing all of the pros and cons: appropriateness, importance, timeliness, complications, objections, overall educational worth as a library activity, costs.
24. Establishing a fair priority, compared with other proposals.
25. Possibility of tryout as sample or on a small scale.
26. Preparation of complete instructions as device to clarify additional details and difficulties.
27. If the board considers it sufficiently important, presenting proposal to library board clearly worded, with enough detail, cost estimates, and all pros and cons stated objectively, so board will not later discover significant viewpoints were overlooked or unfairly stated. Decision by trustees, perhaps after postponed consideration, or they may approve it as a report on routine detail.
28. If favorably decided, arranging for all constructive factors: staff and reader cooperation; outside publicity; detailed instructions to each person concerned, including provision for supervising and checking on results.
29. If negative decision, procedures for explaining reasons to all concerned, especially to those who proposed it.

The foregoing represents the course of decisions of some consequence; only good ideas and projects can come through such a screening. But many smaller matters would be better handled if their pros and cons were weighed in the light of this schedule, but decided without disheartening time lag. The successful librarian or department head "also breathes a spirit of inspiration and confidence into his associates, which develops their enthusiasm and loyalty to go along with the decision."⁸⁴ Participation within a catalog department, for example, helps arrive at decisions, but it also is a prime factor in developing executive ability among assistants.⁸⁵

The librarian has to have the judgment to evaluate policies and activities, and to make decisions above the departmental level. This evaluation involves opinions more than statistics, costs, results, a sense of purpose and of social balance. If a few staff leaders or trustees have preconceptions that some library activity must be pushed above all else, or thwarted, their hobby or delusion may throw the library's program out of balance, to the neglect of essentials. A head may be overly impressed by each new formula, or organizational setup, or gadget, which will magically straighten out everything. Few remedies or devices are quite so remarkable; novelty appeal does not last long. Plans and methods worked out close to home by capable colleagues often accomplish much on the main line. The question is: What is the main line, for the library as a whole and for each department? Libraries and librarians are much more in need of courage than of caution.

DELEGATION

Clearly librarians and department heads must delegate many things to many persons, to save their own time, to assure fuller consideration than they can give, by persons often better informed than they and closer to details and actions. A librarian delegates responsibility to department heads, they delegate duties to their assistants. Failure to delegate is a key cause of overhead executive failure. When agency heads permit themselves to be overwhelmed by detail, they rob themselves of time essential for their most important tasks.⁸⁶

With delegation has to go authority corresponding to the responsibility involved; this means that many decisions have to be made by colleagues. There will be striking contrasts in the abilities of those to whom the chief may wish to delegate; some of them cannot easily make sound decisions, or are too timid to meet and solve difficult personal situations.^{87, 88}

A good librarian will have no desire to interfere with a good department head's running his department, nor to be constantly prompting or revising the work therein, but he cannot escape his own overhead obligation to keep closely informed of what goes on. Delegated authority carries obligation to report to him who delegates. He should not hesitate to make suggestions,

raise questions and have a clear idea of his own as to how well the department is run. If he does so hesitate and the department head is not filling the bill, where is the remedy?

Authority is effectively given only along with instruction, conference and observation by the head. But unless the librarian gives some freedom of opinion and latitude of action, is reconciled to the department head's lesser experience and judgment and is willing to risk the making of occasional errors, there will be little development of second-line executive ability.

To the extent of his interference, the head will be weakening his organization, consuming his own time unnecessarily, slowing down progress, and discouraging his colleagues. Letting some mistakes occur, to the head's restrained anguish, seems to be the price to pay for the whole essential process of delegation.

"Completed Staff Work"

There are other sorts of delegation. As a matter of "staff" rather than "line" duty, special pieces of work or studies are often assigned to some appropriate person or committee, as noted above, to collect new data and ideas, to present a brief of the pros and cons, with a clear recommendation and a proposed follow-up for consideration by the department head, librarian or board. The military forces have developed this idea of completed staff work, delegating a staff officer to be responsible for such studies "in such form that all that remains is for top management to approve or disapprove. In short, good staff work consists of delivering a problem, whether it be operational or planning, or whatever its nature, to your superior in a neatly packaged form. The situation has been studied, the objectives defined, the obstacles recognized, the details worked out, including necessary coordination with other staff officers, and the solution offered already tailored to meet objectives. This is the opposite of bringing the problems to the superior in piecemeal fashion or of asking him what to do or how to do it. . . . If the best result has been reached, this will usually be recognized at once. If the head wants comments or explanations he will ask for them."²⁰

Any library assistant assigned such a piece of work, who can submit a report or memo which shows that all the administrative questions have been foreseen and covered with good judgment, is likely to be invited to higher administrative opportunities. The librarian's reports and recommendations to his board need to be put in the same form.

But the chief has a preliminary obligation to get the assignment started on the right track; he must know what the problem is before making some individual responsible for it. State the problem to him clearly, precisely, explain reasons and background; limit the area to be studied. Give him your experience and knowledge in this problem. Set, or have him set, a time limit. Assure him you are available for discussion as he progresses; he

will see that this is kept to a minimum, but adequate guidance eliminates wasted effort.⁴⁰

CONTROLLING

The word *control* has an impressive, to some a repugnant, to others a hypnotic sound. It is used loosely, both in business and library literature. In management "the essence of control is action which adjusts operations to predetermined standards (or programs) and its basis is information in the hands of managers."⁴¹ This is hardly synonymous with the coverage of Erwin Schell's deservedly popular book *Technique of Executive Control*, which deals with the whole subject of management. Various writers on business administration take special exception to confusing control with objectives, plans, organization charts, delegation, procedures, supervision, etc.⁴² The tools for management control are standards, measurements, reports, evaluation and steps to regulate results to correspond closely with carefully set-up and measured objectives. Examples are performance budgeting and costs per volume for purchasing, or for processing, or for circulation. Control has been called "the essential means to policy fulfillment." Some phases of this are discussed in Chapter 8, on measurement, standards and statistics, for such measurements provide the basis for controlling and corrective action as applied to management.

Who is to control, who is to act? Whoever is responsible for the results. This means, in a library, the various persons from librarian through department heads who are in charge of their respective parts of the organization and operations. For this reason each of these executives needs to understand, develop and be able to set standards and measurements for his part of the work, apply them and take remedial action when the expected good results are not being achieved in operation. If we say that "otherwise he has lost control of things," it may suggest the importance of this function and obligation. With this somewhat perfunctory notice, we leave this subject, whose larger and complicated aspects are of interest only in very large libraries.

DEVELOPING ADMINISTRATIVE ABILITY

Promotion to librarian, department or branch head of a small or large library brings an acute sense of responsibility. To meet this, frequent self-review is stimulating and it helps develop executive ability:

1. Constant awareness, each day, each week, of the need for improvement as a leader and director. A sure way to trim down one's future is to stop trying to develop one's knowledge and abilities, to adopt either the take-it-easy attitude, or the notion that one is really pretty good.

2. Studying executive methods by reading selected books and periodical articles, including what is going on today in librarianship and related fields, as suggested by the readings and footnotes at the end of this chapter. Peruse the latest *Library Literature* for articles worth study. If close enough to colleges and larger cities take management courses, though these deal primarily with business, industry or larger units of government, and seldom comprehend library situations. So much time and wordage is often spent to get into the heart of a topic that much is inconsequential. Perhaps someone in the area who understands management and can teach effectively will come to the library in advance and study openmindedly its objectives, functions, organization, methods, supervision and costs. If so he might arrange his affairs to give a weekly discussion course with the listeners sharing the cost. Some of the very large libraries are attempting in-service training to develop management abilities.⁴³

3. Studying improved performance as shown in actual results in the library's progress and in morale. Observe the methods of various executives within one's library, why they are good or poor and how they could be improved.

4. Dealing with people; knowing one's staff and public better; development of ability to judge and appreciate persons; fairness in dealing with others; integrity in fulfillment of promises; giving instructions in the most effective manner; co-operation; appreciation, respect and courtesy toward subordinates, superiors, each individual one deals with; getting people to work together happily and productively.

5. Developing specific administrative techniques: improved organization and planning of one's own work; promptness and accuracy of decisions; improvement in correspondence, reports, etc.; better supervision and development of workers; effective conduct of meetings; methods improvement; measurement techniques—analysis, charts, etc.; discussing with colleagues the procession of management problems and techniques.

6. Developing technical knowledge of the work supervised: keeping up with new developments in the field; continual intimate contact with the operations under one's supervision; expanded understanding of related fields which bear on one's activities.

7. Bettering personal characteristics: better control of emotions; trying to improve one's learning and memory development; neatness of person; cheerfulness and optimism; thoroughness and perseverance, honesty and frankness. It might as well be admitted that "hard work" is the top factor which 75 per cent of executives gave for their success, in a 1960 nationwide study.⁴⁴

Experience in business and public administration shows that management skills can be taught and learned. Success in developing others for managing depends on the awareness by each executive of his personal responsibility for the growth of those who report to him, and his willingness to devote time, thought, effort to this integral part of his day's work.⁴⁵ Unless a program is formulated in which one logical step is taken at a time, too much responsibility may be placed on someone unprepared. This is more disastrous to the individual than to the library, for it often spells failure and disappointment, when with proper attention and planning the same

person might have proceeded, through intermediate steps, to build up know-how and confidence.

Delegation is one effective device to develop the ability of one's colleagues to meet, study and handle the usual flow of routine problems and later the problems of increasing importance and difficulty. Only by this experience can they build up their own techniques and confidence. The selection of potential executives, before investing so much to develop them, is not an easy matter.⁴⁶ For executive abilities are not always apparent when assistants are new in a library; with many they need fertile soil in which to develop, as pointed out elsewhere. The assistant or future executive has to have time to ripen not only his viewpoints, his judgment and confidence, but his proficiency in the procedures of his particular library.⁴⁷ He does better not to be in a hurry. If he is not always thinking about himself and his progress, but of how he can do each day's work most effectively for the good of the library, he is likely to impress his chief, and to lay the firm foundation for executive responsibility when it comes.

The Novice and the Veteran

The foregoing array of reminders as to how good the librarian and department head should be appears rather formidable both to the novice and to one who has been in administrative work for several years. It is human nature to lose momentum and to take it for granted that one's own work is not too bad. In Chapter 3 it was noted that before appointment to a head position an intelligent assistant is apt to be critical, to hold progressive if not radical ideas for improving conditions and methods and to cry for quick results. On taking over responsibility himself he feels the need for caution; if he is wise he will consider things carefully and not make hasty decisions. But he may soon develop timidity and indecision, magnify difficulties, slow down on decisions and action. He begins to rationalize his own failure to attack problems boldly, under conditions where more resolute, forehanded and active colleagues would have succeeded. Such weaknesses may develop not in one's later years but in the thirties and forties. A study of the ideals, purposes, methods, problems of a number of successful recent and contemporary librarians and department heads in small and large libraries would profit others.

That First Bright Morning

Any librarian or assistant may profitably recall occasionally the enthusiasms and ambitions which he felt in the first few days and weeks after promotion to his present position. This may renew his determination to get results and to fight against inertia and excuses. What were those opportunities that looked so bright and promising a few months or years ago when

he felt so fortunate? And what has become of them? A fresh determination and new self-analysis, with the help of the foregoing lists of executive abilities and procedures, may help realize some of the possibilities that once seemed so attractive and important. One librarian in a spell of discouragement heard one of her department heads at a staff meeting describe enthusiastically but realistically some of the latter's own ideals, problems and results. The inspiration she transmitted to her audience had a deep affect on the chief, who renewed her determination to overcome her own difficulties. Inspiration and good counsel may often be drawn from outgoing and discreet colleagues who can be taken into the librarian's or department head's confidence.

SELF-RATING LIST OF LIBRARY MANAGEMENT SKILLS

A librarian or department head should not feel that "the struggle naught availeth" if he does not become an administrative paragon or genius. The following list of skills and any ratings which may result can be applied in whatever way seems most effective in the local library.

Leadership	Seeking, evaluating, promoting better methods
Adjusting to difficulties and to situations	Resisting expensive unessential enterprises and paperwork
Balance, as to objectives and proposals	Building an outstanding staff
Awareness of pros and cons of national library developments	Communication with staff
Getting adequate information to make decisions	Guiding, encouraging and developing others
Making decisions that stand up	Drawing out staff ideas and frank opinions
Admitting and capitalizing on mistakes	Ability to listen openmindedly to others
Using time effectively, including planning	Working happily with the staff for mutual satisfactions in the work
Ability to see and comprehend what goes on	Handling rumors to the library's advantage
Delegating work and responsibility	Improving and enlarging public service at minimum expenditure
Giving sufficient and understandable instructions	

REFERENCES

Most books in the management field reflect situations in large corporations and organizations, where elaborate frameworks and methods are in use; for that reason some well-known ones are not included here. Despite rapid outdateding of the literature, ten

are most profitable for librarians to scan or read, especially the six starred; Schell, practical and stimulating, deserves complete reading.

1. *Erwin H. Schell. *Technique of Executive Control*. 8th ed. 357 p. 1957. McGraw-Hill. \$6.00. (90,000 sold in various editions.)
2. *Melvin T. Copeland. *The Executive at Work*. 278 p. 1952. Harvard Univ. Press. \$5.
3. *Auren Uris. *The Efficient Executive*. 308 p. 1957. McGraw-Hill. \$5.
4. Edward C. Bursk, ed. *Human Relations for Management*. (17 selected articles from *Harvard Business Review*.) 372 p. 1956. Harper. \$5.75.
5. Carl Heyel. *Organizing Your Job in Management*. 208 p. 1960. American Management Association. \$5.25.
6. Leonard D. White. *Introduction to the Study of Public Administration*. 4th ed. 551 p. 1957. Macmillan. \$6.75.
7. Perin Stryker and editors of *Fortune*. *Guide to Modern Management Methods*. 300 p. 1954. McGraw-Hill. \$3.50.
8. *Joseph G. Mason. *How to Be a More Creative Executive*. 281 p. 1960. McGraw-Hill. \$6. Any book with "creative" in the title is likely, as is this one, to have much about ideas for problem solving.
9. *M. Joseph Dooher and V. Marquis, eds. *The Development of Executive Talent; a Handbook of Management Development Techniques and 18 Case Studies*. 576 p. 1952. American Management Association. o.p.
10. *Max D. Richards and W. A. Nielander, eds. *Readings in Management*. 882 p. 1958. South-Western Pub. Co. \$7.50. (91 selections on business and public management.) We might add *Guides to Common Sense Management*, a 32-p. 1960 reprint of 14 selected articles from *Nation's Business*. \$1. (Address, 1615 H. St. N. W., Washington, D. C.)

Besides numerous magazines in special aspects of management, two gatherings and summaries are published by American Management Association, 1515 Broadway, N. Y. 36, N. Y.: *Management Review*, monthly, \$12.50, and *Personnel*, bi-monthly, \$10. See Chapter 16 for their magazine *Supervisory Management*. An essential monthly annotated bibliography, *Personnel Literature*, covering 200-250 items per issue on many management topics, is issued by the U. S. Civil Service Commission Library.

FOOTNOTES AND SPECIAL MATERIAL

NOTE. The following references, in addition to the ten books above, sifted from several hundred sources for the compressed coverage of this chapter, suggest how valuable would be a monthly summary with quotations of management literature from other fields, applicable in libraries.

11. Amy Winslow. "Staff Participation in Management." *Wilson Library Bulletin*. 27: 624-628. Apr. 1953.
12. William B. Given, Jr. *Bottom-up Management*. 180 p. 1949. Harper. Also Charles P. McCormick's pioneering book, *Multiple Management*. 175 p. 1938. Funk. The trend in this direction in library work started forty years ago. See J. Periam Danton. "Our Libraries—the Trend Toward Democracy." *Library Quarterly*. 4: 16-27. Jan. 1934.
13. Michael G. Blansfield. "One Big Happy Family?" *Management Review*. 49: 9-14. May 1960.
14. E.g. Grand Rapids and Evansville Public Libraries, staff handbooks. 36 p. and 30 p. 1956. Many other libraries have similar ones.
15. Paul Pigors to National Association of Training Directors, 1949. *Supervision*. Feb. 1950. p. 22. One of the best summaries of methods is: Wallace F. Bennett.

Employee Communications for Better Understanding. 30 p. 1949. National Assoc'n of Manufacturers. N. Y. free. There is an elaborate literature on "Systems of Communication."

16. Herman W. Seiworth. *Getting Results from Suggestion Plans*. 223 p. 1948. McGraw-Hill. o.p. Like most literature on this topic this deals with large industrial organizations.

17. "Attitudes of Scientists and Engineers." *Science*. 128: 691. Sept. 28, 1958.

18. For staff instruction sheets and manuals see Chapter 16, on supervision.

19. Julius E. Eittington. "The Committee Revisited." *Personnel Administration*. 23: 10-18. Nov.-Dec. 1960.

20. Clarence B. Randall. "The Myth of the Management Committee." *Dun's Review and Modern Industry*. 76: 37-39. July 1960. Also Ransom Richardson. "A Staff Committee Structure." *A. L. A. Bulletin*. 55: 32-35. Jan. 1961.

21. Oscar C. Orman, in *Wilson Library Bulletin*. 14: 572. Apr. 1940.

22. Errett W. and John McDiarmid. *Administration of the American Public Library*. 250 p. 1943. A. L. A. p. 194. For good discussion of administration-staff association relations, see Edwin Castagna, "That Vague and Sensitive Area." *A. L. A. Bulletin*. 55: 36-37. Jan. 1961.

23. Viola E. Fitch. "Organized Labor in the Library." *Library Journal*. 74: 1069-1071. Aug. 1949. The A. L. A.'s Staff Organization Round Table is helpful, with suggestions for different situations.

24. The following points are based in part on "30 Rules for Getting Things Done Through People." *Modern Industry*. 16: 67-68+. Nov. 15, 1948. By kind permission of *Dun's Review and Modern Industry*.

25. Charles A. Cerami. "How to Undo a Mistake." *Nation's Business*. 46: 66-68. June 1958.

26. Edward Hodnett. *The Art of Problem Solving: How to Improve Your Methods*. 202 p. 1955. Harper. \$3.95.

27. *A Practical Approach to Making Policy*. Revised 1959. 32 p. U. S. Rural Electrification Administration. Bulletin 103-1.

28. Paul and Faith Pigors. "Let's Talk Policy." *Personnel*. 27: 5-14. July 1950. See also the footnotes in Chapters 2 and 4.

29. Auren Unis. "Get Full Use of Ideas." *Nation's Business*. 46: 86-89. Oct. 1958. See also Mason. *How to Be a More Creative Executive*, note 8 above. Chapter 8: Help Yourself to More Ideas.

30. Summarized in *Time*. 69: 90. Feb. 18, 1957. See also such brochures as *Questions and Answers about Brainstorming at Du Pont*. 16 p. 1956. Du Pont Co., Wilmington, Del.

31. Alex Osborn. "Your Ideas; How to Put Them Across." *Factory Management and Maintenance*. 108: 68-72. Feb. 1950. Also his book *Applied Imagination*. Rev. ed. 402 p. 1957. Scribner. \$3.75.

32. Robert Tannenbaum and Fred Massarik. *Participation by Subordinates in the Managerial Decision-making Process*. Univ. of California. Institute of Public Relations. Los Angeles. Reprint No. 14. 1950. p. 408-418. Among several books: Joseph D. Cooper. *The Art of Decision Making*. 394 p. 1961. Doubleday. \$5.

33. Herbert A. Simon. *Administrative Behavior; a Study of Decision-making Processes*. 2nd ed. 259 p. 1957. Macmillan. \$5. An elaborate but interesting study. We do not cite several other exhaustive studies useful only to very large libraries. An 111 p. annotated bibliography on DM by Wasserman and Silander was published in 1958.

34. J. Don Miller, Jr. "Developing Powers for Decision." *Advanced Management*. 13: 30. March 1948. Also Lydia Strong. "The Ordeal of Executive Decisions." *Management Review*. 44: 746-755. Nov. 1955.

35. Margaret C. Brown. "In-Service Training and Decision-Making in the Catalog Department." *Library Resources & Technical Processes*. 5: 82-86. Winter 1961.
36. Donald A. and Eleanor C. Laird. *The Techniques of Delegating*. 195 p. 1957. McGraw-Hill. o.p. Two practical industrial psychologists present usable ideas, based on hundreds of situations, such as the distinction between assigning and delegating.
37. Perrin Stryker. "The Subtleties of Delegation." *Fortune*. 51: 94-97+. March 1955.
38. Harold D. Koontz and Cyril O'Donnell. *Principles of Management*. 2nd ed. 718 p. 1959. McGraw-Hill. \$7.50. Chapter 6 on delegation of authority.
39. *Personnel Information Bulletin*. U. S. Veterans Administration. May 1950, p. 5.
40. H. A. Dammiger. "Completed Staff Work—the Commander's Part." *Army Information Digest*. 8: 30-34. Jan. 1953.
41. Douglas S. Sherwin. "The Meaning of Control." *Dun's Review and Modern Industry*. 67: 45-48. Jan. 1956.
42. Edwin O. Stene. *Some Thoughts on the Theory and Practice of Administration*. 39 p. Indiana Univ. Bureau of Business Research. (Bulletin 38.) 1960. Interesting account of developments in the whole field.
43. Kathleen B. Stebbins. *Personnel Administration in Libraries*. 304 p. 1958. Scarecrow Press. \$5. Chapter 17 gives 15 pages on executive development. Also, see note at end of "References" above.
44. David G. Moore. "Why Some Win, Others Lose." *Nation's Business*. 48: 40-41+. Oct. 1960.
45. *Management Development Methods*. 24 p. 1960. Du Pont de Nemours & Co.
46. Robert N. McMurry. "How to Pick Capable Men." *Nation's Business*. 46: 48-52+. Feb. 1960. Also Howard R. Dressner. "Eight Tests Spot Initiative." *Nation's Business*. 46: 104-106. March 1960.
47. James M. Black. *Developing Competent Subordinates*. 128 p. 1961. American Management Association. \$4.50. Discusses methods of identifying and choosing executive assistants and their in-service training. See also the latter half of our Chapter 16, on supervision.

CHAPTER 7

*Library Finances**

Although there are still separately incorporated, endowed or association libraries, and the variety of local fiscal regulations and situations is too great to even summarize in a brief chapter, three factors will lead ultimately to the library's standing in its logical place as a normal publicly supported municipal activity. (1) Because of price rises, income from endowments often decreases in purchasing power. (2) The extent and cost of library services demanded by the community continually increase; the public is willing and expects to pay for them. (3) Unless all the taxpayers in a community share and have some say in library support, they never feel the library is their own child, but rather a gift from a wealthy friend, however public-spirited he may have been. This is especially true with libraries named for a benefactor. For its own good the library needs to be a part of the financial structure of the town or city government.^{1, 2} A 1946 survey showed that less than a third of the people know anything about the sources or the adequacy of library revenues.³

The trustees' function is to forestall dangerous political encroachment, to have restrictive rules waived, to keep the board's own power to plan and adjust budgets most effectively for the library's welfare and growth, and to press actively for and achieve good support somehow. In 1955, Ohio libraries found themselves in a hassle with the politically powerful Ohio Municipal League of city and village officials, which tried to divert \$6 million from libraries and distribute it among other municipal uses; librarians and trustees aroused public interest sufficient to defeat this attempt.

The A. L. A. *Cost of Library Service* in 1959, supplement to its *Public Library Service*, 1956, states that \$3.50 per capita is needed "to achieve minimum standards in more or less typical communities of 100,000 population. Smaller places will need more."⁴ Assuming even \$3.50 per capita as a reasonable minimum support, the library budget forms a small dollar

* Standards and measurements for library expenditures are discussed in Chapter 8; fiscal records in Chapter 32.

total, a small percentage, of the local government budget. Many libraries now receive more than \$3.50 per capita in tax funds, and most library building bond issues have been approved by large majorities of citizen votes. As Leigh notes under the heading "The Library's Fiscal Insignificance," support (in 1950) was less than 1 per cent of the total budgets for public services and little more than 2 per cent of public school budgets, about 2 cents out of the municipal tax dollar, compared for example with 4 cents for public recreation.⁵

The prevalence of poor library support has no sound or logical cause except failure of the trustees to compel better support. Tax money goes to meet those needs which people, or more accurately the public officials, consider important. Few would stand up at a public meeting and say, "I am against libraries." It is a question what a population wishes to do with its money. Indifference of voters to the library is due in part to lack of understanding of library services and needs; for this the library is responsible, even though Deily found a slight correlation between the general economic ability of cities and towns of over 100,000 (i.e., their per-capita purchasing power and tax basis), their current municipal expenditures and the library appropriation.⁶

The chief influences in good or poor support, transcending comparative economic ability, may be pinned down to (1) determined effort by library officers in some communities to keep library services and needs continuously before the public and the appropriating boards; (2) the initiative, resourcefulness and persistence of the librarian and trustees in pressing for funds; (3) very often the personal attitude of municipal officers toward the library, the board or the librarian; and (4) the rating which the library has in the public mind as to its efficiency and economy. As a leading jurist said: "Library officials have too much of an inferiority complex in asking for funds."⁷

SOURCES OF REVENUE

Library thinking and planning has to be in terms of budget. Better support is a chief incentive for trustees to overlook their separatist attitudes about their local library and press forward with others to take advantage of books, guidance and services from larger and better regional units, as urged by A. L. A.⁸ and discussed below in Chapter 26. The small-town or city library, operating on its own, runs up a far higher cost to assemble a book collection and staff, in proportion to its volume of service, than the large city or system. The compelling force of this argument leads to a policy and a program which will extricate the small library from its local pride, prerogatives and poverty, and integrate it with a larger and more powerful system.

However, mere size and mere combination do not automatically assure economy; it has to be sought and fought for inside the library.

Public Funds

Except for the minor total of book fines and penalties, public library support typically comes almost entirely from local tax levies or appropriations. Public fiscal officers oppose special levies for individual departments, though some states permit a popular vote for a certain percentage or millage for library support; many libraries have won such votes. The almost universal procedure is for the library to present a budget request to the appropriating board, exert all possible influence for approval of the whole amount, and take what it can get in competition with other city departments which have to follow the same procedure. This may appear fair and logical and is favored by authorities on municipal government. But there is a widespread disinterest and lack of information about libraries among municipal officials, especially those appointed or elected through party politics, those who distrust education and downgrade intellectual matters, those who are not familiar with any good library's valuable reference services to the public and those whose primary concern is with public works and contracts, real estate or self-centered business and industry.

Such attitudes widely prevail when library budgets are up for consideration. Appropriations may by no means reflect public opinion or any well-grounded and careful weighing of comparative community values. A city official will oppose adequate building repair items in the library budget, but, after a year or two of maneuvering to have them handled by the public works department, he will up the library repair budget more than three times, farm out the small contracts among numerous political friends, and repairs will cost 25 to 200 per cent more than when the library managed them. There was the enthusiastic trustee, old friend of appropriating board member Fred, who visited the latter to plead for a large library increase: "Fred, do you realize the library has doubled its circulation in two years?" he exclaimed impressively. Fred's outraged reply may be a classic: "Who in hell told the library to double its circulation?" What hardboiled Fred said was what carried with his finance board, along with warnings to the library to "pipe down and quit pressuring us for money." This attitude seems in striking contrast to current ideas of the value of performance budgeting.

Public Tax and Fee Funds

In most libraries nearly all income derives from a municipal appropriation based on property taxes. But an increasing number of states, more than half in 1961, provide grants-in-aid such as those in New York, New Jersey, Michigan and several southern states, to be divided among libraries as they

have been for some years among schools, as supplemental public support.⁸ The 1956 Federal five-year grants for library development noted in Chapter 1 were originally considered as temporary, both by Congress and by the A. L. A., but changing attitudes and the popular response to the program have led to continuance.

Real estate tax funds are precarious; they shrink in hard times and are seldom based on actual property valuations. It is fair that these penalties be shared by the library in the same ratio as other municipal departments. No substantial substitute has been found, though supplementary service fees and sales and occupational taxes are on the increase, plus a variety of state and city sales, income, gas, cigarette and other special taxes and fees, whose complicated local patterns do not permit discussion here.¹⁰ State commissions will provide detailed information as to the public funds permissible for local library support, in a given state.

Library Fines and Fees

Increasingly the library, like other departments, has to turn over all cash receipts to the city treasurer, setting in the next budget an item of corresponding expected receipts. This budgetary practice should not apply in the case of pay-duplicate collection receipts; the incentive to build a large, fast-moving, efficient service on new and excellent fiction is lost without a separate revolving fund, outside the budget, as explained in Chapters 17 and 27.

Gift Funds

The fear of losing public funds discourages libraries from seeking gift and endowment funds even for special services. Any consideration of gifts starts with the valid question: "How will a large money gift or an endowment fund, if we can obtain it, affect our fate in demanding more adequate tax support?" And numerous libraries in large cities and small towns strangle themselves by their timidity in pushing for enough public funds to supplement endowment income to reach a normal total, i.e., \$3.50 per capita. Public officials have tried and sometimes prevailed to use such generous gifts as an excuse for reducing appropriations. One library, a few weeks before budget time, unthinkingly gave good publicity to the bequest of a large book collection. Many titles were outdated and few would be of much actual usefulness, but in appreciation of a beloved citizen the story played up their excellence. Result, a severe cut in the next year's book budget, backed up by quotations from the news story.

A chapter on library financing must emphasize continuous publicity to keep the public aware: that the local library is underfinanced unless it is getting the A. L. A.'s \$3.50 per-capita minimum, which will soon not suffice

to meet public demands; that it is constantly seeking economies (it must back this by finding, practicing and reporting such economies as those listed below); that the public is always demanding useful services and materials the library cannot possibly afford; and that even if the library is well supported by public funds, donors have a right to provide substantial gifts and endowments without jeopardizing increasing public support, especially when these gifts funds are to be used for special materials and services beyond the ordinary pattern the library has been following. A gift to the library is a gift to the whole community.¹¹

Public libraries like the public schools should be adequately supported by public funds. But libraries are neglecting programs to secure gift and endowment funds for special purposes, just as state universities do, for example. A continuous program could include: soliciting gift book funds and money for special purchases; finding individuals and organizations willing to give money each year to build collections in their special field of interest; persuading a few discerning persons to contribute salary portions to get or keep outstanding staff members, on whom high-class service depends; identifying special items of equipment or service which might appeal to certain individuals, (such as the \$700 globe a librarian was examining with enthusiasm in a large city store; regretting it was out of the library's reach, he was overheard by a businessman who bought it on the spot for the library); and request bequests, involving the most effective approach to prospective donors, such as Racine's leaflet about John Deferrari, the great benefactor of The Boston Public Library.

A library owes it to donors and to their memories not to divert funds from intended purposes, and it has an obligation to call for expert advice on investing funds safely at maximum return, instead of letting them "rust in the bank" at some nominal interest to please bankers. Some flexibility is often possible, but it is a breach of trust to use money left "for additional help in X department," bequeathed by its former head because it was always short-handed, for purchasing labor-saving equipment, for which money is more easily found. A library can honor the memory of benefactors by occasional exhibits and by enthusiastic news stories of what a gift has meant to the community. It can report the wise efforts of committees and individuals responsible for careful investment and the generous interest returns from gift funds. The public likes to know about such examples of good citizenship, which encourage other gifts.

BUDGETING

Budget Proportions

The two large items in every library's expenditures are salaries and reader materials. Other items in the budget are minor, and fairly self-explanatory.

Reasons for what some persons consider an imbalance between salaries and books are interwoven with efficient administration and are discussed further in Chapter 8, on measurements and standards, in Chapters 12-14, on personnel, and in Chapter 27, on the book collection. In view of the committee study that preceded detailed budget proportions suggested in A. L. A. *Costs of Public Library Service in 1959*, and the likelihood of their occasional updating, we offer here only brief commentary on the two major items, books and salaries. Reducing each and all miscellaneous minor expenses obviously helps both books and salaries. Proportionately these other items constitute a larger and larger part of the total budget, the smaller the library. Also, the budget should separate building-care wages from staff salaries, and here again costs for building care and maintenance rise proportionately as population and budget totals decrease. Many small libraries with inefficient and pretentious old buildings are paying more for janitorial work than the librarian receives. The 1959 A. L. A. suggested Budget 1, the smallest, is for a county of 50,000 population, of whom 20,000 live in the county seat. It allots 68.8 per cent to salaries, not including janitorial, and 18 per cent to books and other materials, leaving 13.2 per cent for all miscellaneous costs. It is rather hard on the several thousand independent libraries of under 50,000 population to have no similar suggested budgets, nor any U.S. Office of Education data of actual proportions for cities under 35,000 population since 1956.

Statistics from 7,257 single public libraries with budgets of at least \$500 and 3,566 branches of these libraries, a total of 10,823 "public library outlets," reported in the 1957 American Library Directory, showed total incomes of \$208,911,300, from which \$32,771,000 was spent for books, periodicals and binding, so this "cost for collections" made up 15.7 per cent of their total incomes, which were doubtless roughly equal to their total expenses. The \$32 million dollars broke down into 79.7 per cent for books, 7.2 per cent for periodicals and 13.1 per cent for binding.¹² These four proportions are realistic and useful as "rule of thumb" budget information, but like so much other library data require close analysis to find significant factors as to why a given library should spend more or less than these actual averages. For example, libraries which have built up a collection and promoted public use of a high proportion and high quality of nonfiction titles would probably have smaller binding quotas. If they emphasized and developed a busy reference service on subjects of prime interest to their communities, their periodical quota might be much larger than 7.2 per cent, while salary costs would increase to handle this higher-type service. There are a large number of public libraries where salaries, including janitorial, are now absorbing 70 per cent or more of total budgets, largely because of the compulsion of getting sufficient personnel (see table of standards, Table 3 in Chapter 8), and paying enough salary to hold the competent.

Budget Preparation

Almost universally the library budget is prepared by or under direction of the librarian. He has to present and defend it before his own board and generally before the town or city manager or the public appropriating body.¹⁸ Together with his department heads, including whoever is responsible for building maintenance and repairs, he will study the present year's budget as it affects their departments and prepare a schedule of added items, increases, omissions, with notations to help explain the needs, arranged in the order of importance. The extent to which each department head is experienced enough to prepare his own part of the budget has to be decided by the librarian, but he should understand what is contemplated for his department in the preparation of revised departmental schedules to be incorporated in the final budget sheets. The financial officer, or some colleague of judgment and discretion, will sit in during these stages, will raise questions, assemble the revised items, see that they are in proper sequence and draw up the budget sheets for the librarian to hand the trustees. In smaller libraries some board member, perhaps the treasurer, generally sits down with the librarian to thresh out all the items and put the budget into shape for the whole board. The library board and the mayor or city manager, then the local fiscal authority, question and decide on the budget. The librarian's delegation to others of the handling of daily cash receipts, bookkeeping, purchasing and distribution of supplies is noted in Chapter 32.

Timetable for Budget Preparation

Month by month while a library's records, performance, measurement and control go on, its heads are never oblivious of daily implications for the next budget. Many libraries start eight or ten months ahead to point things toward budget preparation, not leaving everything until the last minute. In reverse order the usual steps would be:

1. Finding out legal or customary date for presenting budget to town or city officials for consideration.
2. At least a month before that, the trustees should have a finished draft to study and discuss, to permit alterations or complete redrafting.
3. Several weeks previous to that the trustees' finance committee or chosen member will go over all budget details with the librarian, to help shape things up.
4. Before that, the librarian and board need to discuss the next budget in a preliminary way as to policies and major additions, and make a rough estimate of the total. Salaries are the chief item: "The board considers our salary schedule in advance; once this is decided, the rest goes through more easily." This is where a careful one-year or five-year plan shows its value, especially as to needed personnel; this avoids drastic requests and is a simplified form of program budgeting discussed under the next heading.

5. Having set a date for this preliminary shape-up, set a date at least a month previous to item 4 for all pertinent data to be assembled, studied and put into rough shape.

6. Notify heads and colleagues far enough before that so they can study and prepare their departmental estimates of needs. Give careful instructions as to itemizing their portion of the budget, warnings as to economy, details as to what facts are needed.

7. First of all, determine whether the budget forms and sequence of items used the previous year are to be followed, or essential changes made in presentation. It is good policy, whether required or not, to use regular local municipal budget forms and procedures. The library can then say that its budget is as systematic and revealing as that of other departments, that its cards are on the table.

All library records, including fiscal, need to be set up and kept in simple form. It appears inconsistent to strive to abolish various library red tape, e.g., inventory, accession book, charging by Newark system, perforating ownership marks, etc., while at the same time imagining that elaborate budget and accounting schedules and cost records have some "businesslike" virtue. Often they are carried to excess and are not utilized to secure or promote real efficiency or economy. True, the very large library has different problems from the very small one, e.g., it may be required to keep a careful property list of every piece of furniture and equipment.

As Wight points out¹⁴ time-cost studies and records need not be too elaborate, or continuous through the year. But what shall be measured, to be worthwhile? Chapter 8 discusses simple, short-period sampling. A practical test is the actual utilization of the information and the importance of what it proves.

Performance or Program Budgeting

These two terms, recently developed in public administration, reflect the idea that a budget is not a hastily thought-up series of items guessed at around a table or juggled to appear fairly logical in their increase over previous allotments, but a carefully arranged presentation of present and needed activities, services, materials, maintenance, etc. In a performance budget a public official will find (a) some measuring stick for judging present fair costs in terms of work units or service units, i.e., performance (or total units of production per year, divided into annual paid gross hours);¹⁵ and (b) a series of departmental or activity headings, in general perhaps comparable to a diagram of the library organization, listing the estimated cost items under each activity for the coming year, contrasted with previous allotments, and showing why the programs or proposals are justified. The theory is that by scrutinizing such a budget public officials, including library trustees, can see rather easily what is and has been going on, and the measured

and justified basis for requested increases, or other readjustment. The program budget has a similar breakdown, first into major activities or departments, and then into six or eight of the major cost items. But it does not call for the expensive cost measurement studies implied in "performance" budgets.¹⁶

Such a budget is a setting forth of policies and a "plan of work," in terms of dollars. It is prepared, studied, acted upon and referred back to as a sort of chart and compass, a reference document—not a mere financial statement. It shows what the library is emphasizing or strengthening, in comparison with other aspects of its work. It is a prime instrument for control of plans and operations and costs.

The performance budget involves measurement of unit costs, and it is not easy to evolve library service or work unit costs which will not be misleading, though certain major "output" figures, such as the old standby circulation totals, can be shown alongside the total expenditure or proposed allotments therefor. As soon as separate figures have to be kept for different parts of the operation so much staff time is involved that we come into conflict with current attempts of librarians to abolish many of the records they have been keeping, some of which have been found conducive to better service. As late as May, 1960, "program or performance budgeting yet remains something of a mystery. . . . A program budget is inherently a policy-making tool, subject to review and decision by the legislative body. A *performance budget* is a valuable instrument through which the administrator guides the execution of policy and controls costs."¹⁷ This latter thought may well be overoptimistic; controlling costs is not so simple and in the library's case may be better achieved by direct method studies in different departments, where measurement is difficult and costly, as noted in Chapter 11. The policy-making implication of the program budget is its greatest asset. Significant departures from "slavish linkage to cost accounting" have recently been made.¹⁷

Usual Budget Items

A library budget should be defensible on every item, as well as on its general arrangement and presentation. It is customary to give first the items of income, followed by itemized expenditures under major headings, attaching to the budget a letter or memorandum summary giving the main line of reasoning, statistics as to increases in services, performance costs and proof to justify new items or increases. Despite promotion for more complicated presentations, most public libraries will wish to follow a short, self-explanatory schedule of items, such as the following. (A more detailed list appears in Wight¹⁸ and is useful to prevent overlooking items, even though all the details need not appear in the budget of a small library.)

Receipts

Balance on hand (how much of it is encumbered?)

Local tax appropriation

County or state appropriation

School board or Federal funds

Gifts or endowment income

Fines and petty cash

Other

Total

(Libraries having substantial endowment funds should include a separate debit and credit statement; the item above refers to income included in the general operating budget).

Expenditures

Salaries, library professional staff

Salaries, library clerical and page staff

Salaries, building staff

Books

Periodicals

Binding and mending

Audio-visual

Rent

Heat, light, power, water, telephone

Stationery, printing, supplies, equipment

Insurance

Other operating expense

Total expense

Capital outlay (if out of receipts)

Grand total

Line-by-Line Budgeting

This implies a rigid enumeration, especially of individual salaries, often with the rule that no changes in a salary or other item can be made without permission of a higher authority. This is a severe handicap, justified theoretically in that it deters informal shifts and increases and means savings during the year. It often means also that if a vacancy cannot be immediately filled the money will lapse or accrue to the town treasury. Great injustices arise from this device; the natural desire to have no portion of a salary revert to the city results in "temporary" appointments of unqualified persons who linger on and may work their way into the permanent payroll, or there will be shortage of help where and when needed.

Many local authorities permit transfers of funds from one item or category to another, with their permission and according to state and local regulations, which may forbid increase of total salaries or total budget. Such permission should be used with caution; those concerned should be kept posted to avoid any appearance of behind-the-scene juggling.

OUTFLOW OF FUNDS**Fund Control and Time Allotment**

Another financial problem is the planning and scrutiny of the flow of expenditure money through the twelve budget months for which it was intended. A monthly financial statement is needed to show trustees where

they stand; a simple form for libraries of 25,000 to 200,000 population would show budget headings listed in column 1, followed by column 2, the year's budget allotment; 3, amount spent in previous month; 4, spent since year began; 5, percentage spent of year's budget; 6, balance unspent of year's budget. Adding a column for outstanding bills and purchase orders may or may not be useful enough to justify the extra time cost, as discussed in Chapter 32.

The simple assumption that one twelfth of the year's allotment in each budget item should be spent each month is unrealistic for most libraries, though it is a useful guide of which the librarian is always conscious and will be roughly followed, especially toward the year's end. Public use of libraries follows a seasonal pattern, with ups in the colder long-evening months, and down curves in the summer, outdoor, nonschool months. School-year months are busiest. Another seasonal curve, that of book publishing, is tied to the October-Christmas rush of retail store book buying. This will be reflected in library book buying, if important new books are to be available when reader demand is heaviest for the given titles. The dips in the book-buying curve can be partially leveled by ordering replacements, most children's books and fill-ins of lacunae, during the less busy months. This also helps to even out the flow of work in the order, catalog and preparation departments.

It is not easy to even the seasonal or daily public service workload curve. It is not the same in any two libraries, or in different parts of the country. The increasing practice is to provide part-time, peak-season clerical helpers, at less cost than all-year workers, to handle certain categories of work. A twelve-month distribution schedule of anticipated expenditures should minimize peaks and valleys as they affect the general budget. Deviations need to be analyzed from experience, preferably by keeping statistical samplings, and setting up a graph, based on monthly expenditures for the last two or three years and then adhered to. Where experience proves that the rule of one-twelfth and an "even flow" works hardships on staff and is the cause of reader delays, figures and charts should be prepared by the librarian and studied and understood by the board to preface a request to modify this rule.¹⁹

Balances

A chapter could be written on the merits and penalties of having to show any substantial balance carried over from the preceding year, often due to difference between library and municipal fiscal periods, or belated receipts beyond the proportionate monthly expenditures. It is a delusion that a balance indicates commendable watchful thrift or good planning, when services are deprived of funds that should have been expended during the

year for which appropriated. Many libraries have been penalized by the resulting impression that the library can get along with that much less for the coming year. In other cases a balance may have to be carried over as "encumbered" funds, following local municipal ruling or practice. If so, it should be clearly so labeled, shown as the last rather than the first item in the revenue schedule, and the purpose should be explained in a parenthesis line directly following the item, making it clear that it is an annual book-keeping procedure which does not indicate a real surplus. In some cities such restrictions slow or stop the order or receipt of new books, creating a gap in service flow to readers for five or six weeks, in order to "come out even" at the fiscal year end, as discussed in Chapter 28. This saves no money; the payment flow can be readjusted to keep the book flow unbroken, and trustees in some places have secured modification of such rules. On the other hand, where periodic fund allotments or special tax or levy proceeds are issued to the library and it can keep them on deposit or as certificates of deposit in a bank until drawn on, the library should see that it gets interest. One library in a city of 175,000 makes about \$3,000 annually from this.

SAVING LIBRARY DOLLARS

For several years the nation's economy has been one of optimistic gradual inflation, assuming "no more depressions." Those who remember the depression of 1929-35 and subsequent recessions, and those who believe in economical operation as a good all-weather philosophy for all public service, are continuously cost conscious. Other librarians need to be reminded that more money is not always a magic remedy, and that someone needs to check up on such economies as:

- Effective supervision in every part of the organization, e.g., close instruction and overseeing, tying things together, morale. These insure better output.

- Constant scrutiny and restudy of work processes, methods, flow and output; work simplification.

- Use of labor-saving devices where they will actually save time and not create new records and activities.

- Refusal to start new records and paperwork which can be avoided. Work measurement and cost keeping may be in this category.

- Ditto, as to new services, however attractive, until present services have been strengthened, generally by better salaries and personnel; i.e., avoiding spreading too thin for too many activities, too many branches.

- Canceling and reducing activities and services that can be dispensed with, without acute public and social loss.

- Refusal to dissipate staff time and energy in such outside activities as do not directly increase public reading, study and information seeking.

- Ditto, as to cutting waste of staff time inside the library on too many confer-

ences, too much conversation, numerous well-meant but unprofitable tasks like handmade signs and posters and exhibits which could be done in half the time or more cheaply by paying a competent outsider.

Hiring part-time well-instructed nonprofessional helpers at peak periods to do work for which they are capable, e.g., upper-level high school students to charge books in the afternoon circulation rush.

FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF BUILDING PROJECTS AND MAINTENANCE

Projects involving capital funds, to buy ground or plan and erect a new building or remodel and enlarge an old one are more logically approached as a special problem in administration than as a matter of operating finance. They are discussed in Chapter 33, and also, as to bond issues, in Chapter 9.

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CHAPTER 8

Research, Statistics, Standards, Surveys

Substantial progress has recently been made in the research and statistical aspects of librarianship. The U.S. Office of Education issued its useful analysis of returns from public libraries for 1955-56,¹ and in October, 1959, initiated its occasional annotated bulletin of *Library Research in Progress*,² while Indiana University in January, 1960, started its *Public Library Abstracts*.³ The U.S. Office of Education continues its annual statistical tables of cities of over 35,000 population,⁴ and issued in 1961 a 156-item bibliography of statistical tables.⁵ Enoch Pratt Library continues its annual *Salary Statistics for Large Public Libraries* (over 300,000 population),⁶ and Fort Wayne its *Selected Statistics* for cities of 100,000 population or more.⁷ Yet recent statistics for libraries in towns of less than 35,000 are unfortunately unavailable nationally, and the lack of current and more complete data about operations in public libraries of all sizes cries for action by the U. S. O. E. or A. L. A.

Great stimulus for research comes from the Council on Library Resources, established in September, 1956, by a Ford Foundation grant, renewed in 1961 for another five-year term. Though chiefly concerned with bibliographic control and information retrieval in large and specialized research libraries, many of its studies affect all public libraries.

A FACTOR IN ADMINISTRATION

What purpose is served by all the time and effort that go into research, statistics and standards? If a library has any definite objectives, or cares how it is progressing toward goals, or feels responsibility to its constituents, then it is under as much obligation to keep major statistics, to measure itself against others, to see what quantity and quality of service it gives for the taxpayer's dollars, as any competitive business which hopes to succeed.⁸ The library has to compete with itself: each year better than the last, each reader served better, each activity improved and performed more econom-

ically. Only by research, by measurement, by comparison with others and with standards can it know where and how it is going: otherwise it drifts in a fog.

Decisions on hours of opening and schedules at a branch, for example, benefit by checkups of attendance by hours for a few sample days. Neighborhood factors affect these figures. Chapter 24 on branches suggests a cutting point, derived from combined major costs divided by total circulation, to compare profitableness per dollar at each branch. Chapter 28 reviews factors by which to measure fair work output and costs per volume or title cataloged.

Whoever claims not to care how his library ranks with others, under such heads as the following minimum of eighteen items, or fails to send in returns to the state library agency and to the U.S. Office of Education and thereby leaves gaps in state and national statistical tables, does his own and other libraries a disservice:

Population served	Expenditures for reader material
Total expenditures	for salaries
Per-capita expenditures	Number of employees
Registration (within three years)	(in full-time equivalent)
Circulation total	trained
adult fiction	untrained
adult nonfiction	building care
juvenile	Informational questions looked up
Books added	(defined in Chapter 18)
withdrawn	Total 18 significant items
total at year end	

The pressing need for far more and better-coordinated research has been frequently noted.⁹ Much of value is left unpublished and practically unknown (the best could be mimeographed for wide use); there is duplication and not enough advance planning and preparation. Entirely new aspects of research need to be organized and financed, especially those relating to everyday services and problems of the typical public library.¹⁰

Space precludes recounting the development of public library statistics. Like so many other things they were started by volunteers, such as Bowerman's tables in the District of Columbia Public Library annual reports, 1911-1915, which led to a statistical set-up at A. L. A. in 1934-43. The Library Services Branch of the U. S. Office of Education, created in 1938, started in 1942 and again in 1948 its valuable annual tabulations of public libraries in cities of over 50,000,¹¹ and since 1958 covering cities of 35,000 to 50,000. Up to that time the only table for cities of under 50,000 seems to have been a volunteer undertaking in 1927¹² and four tables published by A. L. A. in 1936.¹³ In the light of current statistics these earlier tables are of great interest.

Despite the reluctance of numerous hypersensitive librarians, and the

argument that "mere quantity proves nothing," it would serve the general interest if per-capita circulations, especially adult nonfiction, and per-capita reference services and per-capita costs were shown, as a basis for comparisons in national tables. Libraries would pay more attention to their costs and output.

INTERPRETATION OF LIBRARY STATISTICS

Since libraries began to keep statistics, the figures and their interpretation have been sharply criticized. In the 1920's rapid circulation gains and decreased per-circulation costs in many libraries were actively publicized and brought a barrage of deprecatory phrases:¹⁴ "quality vs. quantity," assuming one inconsistent with the other; and "large numbers are not necessarily better than small ones," implying that greater circulation must mean more and poorer fiction and less and poorer nonfiction lent, due to "publicity methods . . . which have undergone little change from their use in commercial fields." "We chafe under the overbearing officiousness of statistics." Forty years later such viewpoints seem farfetched.

It is hazardous to draw too many conclusions from statistics. Walter Kaiser notes the lack of continuity, the change of bases and in methods of reporting, the frequent gaps and errors in columns of figures, which show up in any substantial collection of state or national library statistics, greatly reducing their value.¹⁵ Kaiser also emphasizes the influence of general economic conditions on such major factors as total budgets and total circulations, and on resulting per-capita and unit circulation costs. Data arising from library operations have to be interpreted in the light of cost index changes, of salaries in parallel fields, of time-saving studies and devices in business and public administration, of paperback and periodical sales and the growth of school libraries, and of better or poorer location and access to a library or a branch. To identify such factors seems essential to research for planning.

Research on Ideas and Intangibles

Statistics and their study comprise only one of numerous types of research. There are the gathering and study of opinion and details of methods followed in other libraries and in other fields. Concern as to what other libraries think and do in a given field need not inhibit librarians and their staffs nor turn them into conforming copycats. Judicious imitation may be the best kind of economy. Most libraries which constantly gather data and study current progress are the ones whose planning and decisions put them

out in front, as leaders not blind followers. They like to know what they are doing and why.

The research on which to base policies and plans includes all pertinent information, including "intangibles" which often may be pinned down to definite instructions and procedures. The simplified charging system adopted in 1949 by the Wayne County, Mich., Public Library, eliminating registration in 1950, resulted from many conferences and studies as to percentage of unreturned books, and reasons for failure to return them. It resulted also in savings at eleven other libraries which followed Wayne County's example.¹⁶ Many factors can scarcely be measured by and may even confound statistics. Well-planned intensive publicity, or changing the head of a library, a branch or a department, may drastically improve both morale and efficiency, and increase activity and quality of service, while other major factors continue as before. The statistics at least indicate what has happened, but often fail to explain why. Psychological factors enter into certain studies, such as those discussed in Chapter 11 on evaluating various gadgets.

A library may easily delude itself about the quality of its collections, staff, services. Perhaps research would show up the facts. At first thought "high-level public relations" cannot be measured statistically.¹⁷ But when a library gets a 2, 3, 4, or 5 to 1 public vote for bond issues or tax levy increases, the matter comes out of the clouds into statistics and dollars. And if one takes the time to prepare a list of superior, or specialized and often rather expensive titles of adult nonfiction, and check on their circulation, librarians, trustees and public may all be surprised at the substantial quality of books in steady public use in a good library.

SETUP FOR ADMINISTRATIVE RESEARCH

In chapters which follow, details are discussed as to standards, costs and measurements for personnel, book stock, circulation, reference service, branch operation, buying, cataloging and preparation of books, etc. Operational studies are most logically carried on within the departments. Often they spring from discussions involved in administrative planning and ideas such as those included in this book. Whoever directs the research has to define the objective and formulate a clear hypothesis to guide the study. He must devise procedures to collect reliable data and see that they are isolated from disturbing factors. Through reading he must acquire a background of knowledge by which to interpret the data. Who is to follow through and be responsible for a report? Who shall help in gathering data? Who shall make the inside-department studies? How shall the cooperation of colleagues be assured? Is any cost involved except the time of those assigned? A timetable and deadline will be needed, and a chance for pre-

liminary review and revision. Finally, what measure will be created to evaluate the return from the effort and time involved?¹⁸

Larger libraries will plan a more elaborate program, stemming from urgent specific requirements for adequate data, remembering that new continuous records or paperwork mean a continuous drain on the budget and divert the staff from reader service. Despite the national trend toward research, and the money spent for it in public administration and education, as well as in competitive industry and business, it should be undertaken with care and restraint. A library with a million-dollar budget may need a full-time research assistant to direct, gather, formulate and interpret to librarian and board the significant figures on work and service output, based on thoughtful planning and objectives. Without these, planning can hardly be effective and they provide the significant facts for good public relations. A performance budget cannot be prepared without them. In places too small to justify a full-time researcher or staff, someone has to be drafted from other duties.¹⁹

The small library, serving up to 20,000 population, can afford to keep up only the minimum of items, such as we listed above. But it will note and digest also those reported in current library magazines. We find no provision as yet for badly needed up-to-date statistics on libraries of under 10,000 population.

Simplifying Cost and Work Measurement

The current prestige of certain categories of municipal officers (methods engineers, cost analyzers, planners) generates public funds to build up elaborate paperwork staffs for activities which save little compared to the new salaries involved. Pressure for such offices needs to be resisted inside the library. Cost accounting, discussed in Chapter 11, is wrapped in illusions: that it is the great cure-all, is really "scientific" and assures a business-like operation.²⁰

Many libraries waste salaries by poor assignment and supervision: they buy labor-saving devices at one point while failing to eliminate processes and tighten up on performance somewhere else. Until cost studies are made for various size-categories of public libraries, wherein services are fairly similar, there are no similar and pertinent figures with which a library may compare itself. Routines have to be analyzed and processes have to be eliminated or combined, before cost studies can provide much result. Such studies on a national scale, financed by foundation grants, are badly needed, for then there would be some valid cost and work measures to compare with. The efficient library, pursuing a program of simplicity, may find, when need arises for more detailed data, that samplings on some specific operation for a few days or weeks, not continued at great expense thereafter, will reveal all that is significant.

STANDARDS

When libraries undertake to formulate "standards" they discover the justice of the phrase "so-called standards." That few library standards so far evolved rest on what can be called a "scientific" basis is equally true of numerous operation-cost figures in business and public administration, even when derived at great expense after careful objective deliberations by accountants, cost analysts and methods engineers. Fumbling will doubtless continue. A 1957 study reported that of thirty-nine business concerns already active in operations research, only three had a strong, well-defined program under way. "Reports on OR in business are bound to improve when management men and consultants can talk less about what OR is and more about what it has done."²¹ "Performance standards" in library work have been slowed down by their costliness and are still in their infancy, just as yardsticks for other governmental costs are "admittedly illusive, debatable and in many important aspects unavailable."²²

Any practical library standard involving cost has to be a somewhat arbitrary compromise between: (a) the average of current performance and costs of various services and materials; (b) performance and costs for a group of superior libraries, on the ground that what a number of good libraries can do makes a fair standard for others to meet; (c) the constant increase in costs due to decrease in purchasing power of the dollar, e.g., the fairly but not completely even rise in "expenditure per capita" in cities of 200,000, from 15.4 cents in 1900 to 89.8 cents in 1946,²³ during which time wages probably rose even more in proportion; and (d) the increasing variety, better quality and more intensive character of library service year after year expected and demanded by the public, involving greater expenditures. Such factors made imperative the provision in the A. L. A.'s *Cost of Public Library Service in 1956* for more frequent restudy and revision than heretofore of the cost and budget figures presented therein.

Numerous proposals for standards as to minimum theoretical size of public library systems, i.e., regional vs. local or county, have risen so fast in their required populations and budgets that they are open to question, e.g., the minimum budget of \$25,000, of the 1943 Post War Standards, rose to \$37,500, to \$60,000, and then to \$100,000 in the 1950 Public Library Inquiry;²⁴ but in 1956 it required "100,000 people, approximately \$3 per capita . . . to achieve minimum results,"²⁵ and in 1959 it was \$3.44 per capita.²⁶ In other words there was a jump, in regional concepts, from \$25,000 in 1943 to \$344,000 in 1959. This hardly seems very "scientific."

In short, present "standards" are plainly empirical and can be more justly called "rule of thumb" figures, and are open to many criticisms. Nevertheless they are so useful as fair goals and stimulants that they deserve constant study and development.²⁷

Standards to be promulgated as to per-capitas of budgetary components

and costs, or of materials and services, need to be adjusted to population size. The importance of this factor appears in Tables 8-1 and 8-2, showing actualities in 1955-56 and in 1959. A briefer table published in 1935 was one of the first to show this size factor,²⁸ and if the annual and prompt tables for large cities⁶ and for the libraries of over 100,000 population in Table 8-1 were broken down into 100,000-500,000, 500,000-1,000,000, and over 1,000,000 groups they would show the same size influence. We preface these facts to Table 8-3, which gives suggested standards for current use.

Table 8-1. Influence of City-Size on Major Criteria, 1955-1956*

Showing actual averages of returns from 6,249 libraries, by sizes. Continental U. S.

Population size group	No. of systems reporting	Book stock per capita	Books added per capita	Circulation per capita	Expenditure per capita	Per cent of salaries to total
Under 1,000	1,134	6.85	.280	6.52	\$1.26	39.8
1,000-2,499	1,523	4.17	.180	5.80	\$1.32	44.1
2,500-4,999	989	3.10	.146	5.51	\$1.34	49.9
5,000-9,999	840	2.21	.127	5.13	\$1.33	53.8
10,000-24,999	888	1.62	.010	4.97	\$1.27	57.1
25,000-49,999	472	1.31	.095	4.16	\$1.12	58.5
50,000-99,999	219	1.18	.086	4.21	\$1.18	61.6
100,000 and over	184	1.22	.090	3.71	\$1.68	63.8

* From Tables 28, 29. Rose Vainstein, *Statistics of Public Libraries, 1955-1956*. U. S. Office of Education, 1959.

It will be some years before the majority of smaller libraries have given up their autonomy or joined with larger systems of 100,000 population or more, and at present they have no yardsticks. The following Table 8-3 attempts to suggest definite and realistic standards for communities, according to their size, for support, book stock, circulation and size of staff. The formulas in Table 8-3 for minimum expenditures per capita are an arbitrary scaling between A. L. A.'s 1959 \$3.44 budget for a 100,000 population system, and \$3.96 for a 50,000 population²⁹ but not increasing the per-capita support for smaller communities beyond a more attainable \$3.50 per capita. Budgetary proportions were discussed in the foregoing chapter. The other columns represent a somewhat arbitrary and "rule of thumb" compromise between actual averages and the performance of numerous excellent libraries. These suggested standards have been exceeded by enough libraries to show they can be met by most.³⁰ At least they are more helpful than to have no yardstick at all.

Table 8-2. Influence of Population Size, Larger Cities, 1959*

Population	Number of libraries reporting	Expenditures per capita	Circulation per capita	Books per capita	Books added per capita	Per cent of salaries to total
35,000-50,000 ^a	102	\$1.95	5.51	1.83	.11	66.6
50,000-100,000 ^b	118	\$1.97	5.48	1.53	.11	68.7
100,000 upward ^c (cities)	112	\$2.26	4.41	1.35	.11	72.1
50,000 upward ^d (county & regionals)	174	\$1.33	4.61	.99	.10	62.4

* From U. S. Office of Education Circulars, as follows:

a. Circular 15016, Aug. 1960.

b. Circular 15015, Aug. 1960.

c. Circular 15014 A, revised, Oct. 1960.

d. Circular 15017, Oct. 1960.

Table 8-3. Suggested Minimum Standards for Major Factors

(Note. As the A. L. A. Service Cost 1959 booklet, p. 2, says: "Any community not satisfied with minimum facilities will have to provide more" than \$3.50 per capita, which is set for a more or less typical city or county of 100,000 people).

1. Population Size Categories	2. Expenditures Per Capita	3. Book-Stock Per Capita	4. Circulation Per Capita	5. Per cent of Salaries to total
1. Under 1,000	\$3.50	5 vols.	10 vols.	50%
2. 1,000- 2,500	\$3.50	4 vols.	10 vols.	55%
3. 2,500- 5,000	\$3.50	3.5 vols.	10 vols.	60%
4. 5,000- 10,000	\$3.50	3 vols.	10 vols.	61%
5. 10,000- 25,000	\$3.50	2.7 vols.	9.5 vols.	62%
6. 25,000- 35,000	\$3.50	2.3 vols.	9 vols.	63%
7. 35,000- 50,000	\$3.50	2.2 vols.	9 vols.	64%
8. 50,000-100,000	\$3.50	2 vols.	8.5 vols.	65%
9. 100,000-200,000	\$3.50	1.7 vols.	8 vols.	66%
10. 200,000-500,000	\$3.40	1.5 vols.	7 vols.	67%
11. 500,000 upward	\$3.30	1.2 vols.	6 vols.	68%

We would note that any community which considers itself a desirable one in which to live, will provide library support above the minimum; already numerous cities and towns provide over \$4.

against: unwillingness to take time to study all the problems; preconceptions; failure to study, comprehend and weigh vital against unessential objectives and procedures; and impatience with suggestions from staff members who are often conservative and sensitive.³⁶ Some surveys by general consultants have included recommendations which librarians consider extravagant, such as proliferating small branches and elaborate overhead. One such survey, sought and welcomed by the librarian, included about 10 per cent practicable suggestions; most of the others were so impractical that the report was laid away. The succeeding librarian, asked five years later for a copy, was surprised to know it had ever been made, and after careful study termed it "a joke."

Self-Surveys

It may be argued that if a committee of perceptive executives in a staff can survey their own library, much good will result and the cost of an "outside survey" can be saved. Such a self-survey should and often does turn up unnoticed facts and wholesome ideas, but the participants in a self-survey will have to spend as much or more time to gather the facts as would an outside surveyor. Self-judgments on the intangibles of management, supervision, awareness of time waste recall the case of the queen who asked the mirror, "Who is loveliest of all?" Staff members are often inhibited in their approach and findings, hesitating to criticize or make drastic suggestions which might offend their colleagues. They may lack the completely fresh, challenging viewpoint based on wide experience in scrutinizing other libraries. Such self-surveys and evaluation, frankly and objectively made, stimulate improvement, and this chapter is intended to encourage them, though they do not meet the need of critical intensive review by experienced surveyors.

The self-survey of reader satisfaction, by carefully prepared questionnaire, is an effective device, but has been attempted or even contemplated in few libraries. Do busy readers get what they have taken the trouble to visit the library for? If so, to what extent, and in what categories are they most or least successful, and why?³⁷ Perhaps libraries need more of the competitive urge. One objective is to speed up the selection, ordering and preparation of new books.

Surveys by door-to-door interviews, carefully planned, might discover why families read no books at all, and whether they have any idea of the personal help they could get at the library. But such time-consuming local efforts could give way to an intensive perceptive national survey in half a dozen sections of the country. Only the edges of this problem have been touched.

In short, research within the library on each department and activity

covered in this book is indispensable for good administration. Measuring and evaluating are not ends in themselves; they are a means to improve operations. They have to be aimed at a definite result; the data gathered have to be carefully planned to produce significant facts. Executives have to follow up to improve service or save money. The larger the scope of the study and the more data gathered, the harder to understand and to summarize findings. Keeping circulation figures by classes year after year, neatly written up in the record book, or elaborate cost figures which look impressive, seldom brings improvements or economies; this is not the type of information which this chapter is intended to encourage.

SOME TOPICS FOR STUDY

Librarians could bring forward a hundred topics needing careful research. Studies on topics such as the following would be widely useful. An adequate hypothesis would need to be formulated for each in the light of varied local conditions. Before resorting to any questionnaires all available literature would be studied, and inquiry made of the logical persons, including A. L. A. headquarters and committees, as to similar studies made or under way, but unpublished. Questionnaires would be used only to the minimum extent, and prepared—as to questions and wording—with great care.

1. Reader response and behavior at various age levels as influenced by economic, cultural and other factors.²⁸
2. Statistics, pronouncements and developments on library salaries, 1925 to date; both professional and clerical salary scales, proportion of salary to total budgets, and many other aspects.
3. Circulations and expenditures per capita since 1900, including breakdown between adult fiction vs. nonfiction, and juvenile, at central libraries and branches, by population size groups, and discussion thereof. Requires assembly of many statistics available though never published, including files at the U. S. Office of Education. What factors can produce high per-capita adult circulation? We assume that some definite proportion is desirable. Or should it just be left to chance?
4. Which departments are most often found in libraries of the size categories listed in Table 8-3? What factors besides size seem to influence creation of new departments, e.g., available staff or competent leader, building plan, public interest in special service?
5. What are the functional elements of library supervision? Which present most difficulties? Which elements satisfy executives least, and assistants least? As applied to different categories of workers.
6. Critique of statistics of reference questions kept by public and college libraries. An A. L. A. committee is working on this.

7. What salary recognition and reward should be made for exceptional ability and effectiveness, as compared with the average and the mediocre?

8. Administrative history of the local library; not antiquarian or personal, but as to organization, finances, services, problems encountered in the progress of each major department. What steps were taken to strengthen administrative abilities of executives?

9. Procedures to analyze the necessity, routine, time cost, possible simplifying or shrinking of the routine, possible other improvement or promptness without added cost, of the work by both professional and clerical workers, in various libraries: mending and binding; pasting, labeling and lettering; ordering, cataloging and typing therefor; loan, return and registration work, and reference and informational services.

10. Criteria and procedure to determine whether a given machine or device or method for library use is faster or less costly or produces fewer errors than some other, in doing a given job under designated comparable conditions.

11. What simplified methods can be developed to record service statistics, and receipts and expenditures, in small and medium-sized libraries. Will the Small Libraries Project come up with them?

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28. See John B. Kaiser. "Trends and Salaries," with tables, *A. L. A. Bulletin*. 30: 252-253. April 1936. The effect of population size on salary budget proportion is also shown in detailed 1958 figures that include small libraries, ranging from 64.5% in cities of over 100,000, down to 51.4% for cities of 4,000-5,000. See Ruth Baumann, *Facing the '60's: The Public Library in Wisconsin*. Part I. 125 p. 1961. Univ. of Wisconsin. Bureau of Government. p. 113-114.

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30. For example, 1958 tables showed 37 cities of over 100,000 population with budgets of \$2 to \$3 per capita and 18 cities with budgets of over \$3; 5 of them of over \$4. See Wyllis E. Wright, ed. *American Library & Book Trade Annual*. 1960. Bowker. p. 7, 8. Two of the 43 cities of over 300,000 population had reached 7 circulation per capita in the 1961 Salary Tables. Footnote 6.

31. See *Classification and Pay Plans*. 1939. *op. cit.* p. 15, and *Post-war Standards for Public Libraries*. 1943. *op. cit.* p. 71, 30.

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CHAPTER 9

*Public Relations and Publicity**

A library's program of public relations means the concern and the activities of trustees, heads and staff members to put the library into cordial and understanding relationship with all the people of the community. It means the average citizen's image of the library and the librarians when he hears them mentioned, the extent and warmth of the community's good will toward the library, its understanding of what the library is trying to do, and its appreciation for the quality and morale of the library's staff and services. Public relations is a two-way matter, with as much the intention that all its own staff members shall understand and work with the community as that community segments and groups may understand the library and work with it. Each librarian needs a sixth sense of what public reactions will be toward whatever news and impressions issue from the library, about its objectives, policies, plans, problems, its collections and services, its organization and personnel, its finances and building needs.^{1, 2, 3}

The part played by publicity in public relations is indicated in the following formula,⁴ which shows as common denominator the Service Concept, or the Desire to Serve. Without this underlying purpose, publicity is insincere and public relations will never flourish.

			Informing Public of Services Offered (Publicity)	
Determining Public Needs	+	Courteous Efficient Service	+	Good Public Relations
THE DESIRE TO SERVE				=

Public relations is not in itself a product; it is a series of steps to create a relationship with citizens so that library services can be improved and can reach a wider circle. Good public relations also aid in recruiting better workers and improve staff job satisfaction and morale and thereby reduces turnover. A library which the community respects and whose staff is con-

* See also Chapter 30: Informing Readers as to Library Materials and Services.

sidered of high quality and on their toes, finds it easier to attract and keep good staff members than does a mediocre library. What the public thinks of the library personnel may be the chief element in what it thinks of the library.⁵

AN ESSENTIAL PART OF ADMINISTRATION

The Public Relations Society of America's *Public Relations News* recently defined P.R. as "the management function which evaluates public attitudes, identifies the policies and procedures of an individual or an organization with the public interest, and executes a program of action to earn public understanding and acceptance."⁶ A slogan of the Advertising Clubs of America reads: "Advertising Lowers the Cost of Distribution." For the library this means that with the given investment in building, books and staff, volume can be increased through publicity, and the per-circulation and per-reference-question costs will thereby be lowered. Those who conjure up a "quality vs. quantity" conflict, and insist that quality will be lowered if quantity is increased, those who argue that good service needs no advertising, or that if citizens really want to read they will come and use the library, or that little will be gained by efforts to attract more readers and library use—all these are ready to be convinced that library public relations and publicity are expensive and futile aspects of library administration.

As late as 1958, "exhortation, pleading and argument are [still] essential in a discussion of library public relations . . . [to overcome the notion] that they require more time, energy and budgetary provision than they are worth." But "proper public relations practice is based on objective scrutiny of every phase of a library's administration and services and a continual finding out about whether they meet the real needs of people . . . putting it to the democratic, hence dangerous test . . . distressing to a library administrator whose ideas are tightly bound."⁷

The library *has* public relations, whether or not library officials realize it, or wish it, or plan it; every citizen is potentially interested in all news and impressions about the library as a public institution. The public has the right to know everything about its library. The active and resultful publicity and public relations programs of so many progressive libraries, large and small, for many years, justify the assumption that every library has to give some time and attention to public relations as just defined, and to publicity or promotion. Budget, progress and the effective service of the library are dependent on good public relations and good will. Compared with many other institutions and enterprises, the library is in a favored category; in the main it has a connotation of respectability, of idealism and helpfulness. On the other hand, a library should ask itself whether its

townspeople consider it a "Morgue of Culture," aloof, superior and ultra-conservative.

SOME GENERAL FACTORS

1. Everything the library can do and say to build up public belief that it is alert, active and forward looking, quickly responsive to public demands, interested in progressive methods and economy, operated by devoted and highly skilled staff, and busily engaged in helping more and more citizens in every category results in good public relations.

2. Librarians, like business executives and other groups, tend to associate and discuss with, and be influenced by, acquaintances within their own social, economic, cultural and religious circles. They may fail to understand or even seek to appreciate the general run of the population around them. This consists predominantly of wage earners, consumers, small businessmen and clerical workers, housekeepers and others whose viewpoints and philosophy of life may be different from their own. Unless the library's public relations program, its everyday publicity, is aimed at and prepared to be understood by Tom, Dick and Harry, it will not get very far. Librarians should find deep pleasure in meeting and understanding all these strangers who in turn generally take it for granted that library representatives are friendly and helpful.

3. Library publicity is not "blowing one's own horn"; the public likes to know all about the library. The library can help build a city's pride in itself, e.g., by exhibits of new books written by local authors, or by news stories about whatever credit may come to the library and its staff, and by being well run and a credit to its community.

4. Honesty and sincerity underlie good publicity. Some libraries hesitate to advertise their books and services because they fear the books will be out when asked for, and that they cannot make good on reference questions. But the public has sense enough to understand ordinary difficulties, will wait its turn for books, and will be patient while information is being sought from other libraries. If the library does not let the public know about books and service, it is not capitalizing on the money the taxpayers have invested in them.

5. Continuous publicity is necessary; repetition builds reputation. It takes a long time to sell facts and ideas; much publicity fails by quitting too soon. "Keep it simple; say it often; be sure it's true."

6. Publicity needs to be aimed at and to tie in with the everyday interests, motives and philosophy of the public, including citizens who don't yet use the library or read much. The attitude of friendly helpfulness to all sorts of individuals is essential. But all this is made more vital by aiming it at individuals, or at some special group, not at a vague mass of citizens. Think of a few typical nonreaders as well as readers and aim the publicity at what you know they are interested in.

7. Publicity has not only to describe services and materials; it has to explain library objectives, problems, plans, projects, personnel, standards and accomplishments. It can recite cases where individuals have been helped by library

materials, but also the ways in which citizens and groups have cooperated and helped the library.

8. A good library will take the public into its confidence as to policies and plans, as to methods and rules, as to problems, finances, costs and personnel, and as to criticisms however justified. Dignified silence is not always appropriate; neither is a bad-spirited argumentative defense. If library decisions, practices and services have been carefully thought out and programmed they should give rise to good-spirited news stories which explain pros and cons.

9. It may be taken for granted that even those already using the library have little or no idea of all its services and how they are managed, e.g., indexes to periodicals and to government bulletins, which unlock materials they never thought of, even on topics of their own personal interest.

ORGANIZING THE P.R. PROGRAM

Planning

One must consider (and weekly or fortnightly discussion is helpful) which devices will be most fruitful, e.g., radio spots or a more elaborate program; newspaper stories or exhibits; what particular audience is to be reached; and how much time, talent, money are available. "We tend to pick up and use ideas without weighing them against our important needs" (Stibitz).

Budgeting

No statistical or cost studies were found to justify any given per cent of total budget for public relations. There are too many uncertain, informal, part-time, unreported factors, and most librarians seem agreed that results cannot be definitely measured in increased circulations. Results become evident enough when a bond issue is approved 5 to 1 by the voters, or when circulation doubles in two years. Friend⁸ and Cundiff⁹ evidently studied, by questionnaires, approximately the same 43 or 32 libraries, in cities of over 250,000 population, and found such varied activities, organization and staffing that no cost figures or pattern could be arrived at. While 19 of Friend's 43 libraries reported "a full time director, one had in addition, 2 assistants for display and lettering, one for writing, one photographer, one secretary and two part-time pages." But department heads and staff who initiate, guide or share in varied aspects of P.R. give much additional time. It comes down to two contending factors: how strongly the librarian believes in P.R., and how much he feels can be spent from a never adequate budget. For a rule of thumb we suggest 1 or 2 per cent of the budget, for total staff, materials, printing and outside costs.

In Large Libraries

In cities of over 150,000 a full-time qualified person will be more than busy, and the salary is justified; some libraries rate this as an urgent need, supplemented by whatever part-time assistance he can get from all departments and branches. Chief qualification is a keen understanding of library objectives, a belief in the everyday usefulness of books and printed information evidenced by his own reading, a strong desire for public service, and the ability to work with people, including those who don't use the library. Numerous candidates may appear for this interesting position, but it takes also resourcefulness, a flexible outgoing mind, a solid educational background, and imagination and initiative to see, week after week, how books can tie into the stream of community activities.

Yet another qualification is the ability to plan and organize the publicity work and to get through it without demanding too much expenditure of funds and staff help, and without absorbing too much time in overhead motion. A rapid worker is an asset, especially one who can handle many contacts by phone in such a cordial and definite way as to get results and make the participants enjoy it. If such a person can be found within the staff, well and good. But an enthusiasm, for example, for making posters, lists and exhibits is a sign of only one of the least-important qualifications needed. Often someone is brought in from newspaper work or an advertising agency, with publicity experience and well intentioned, but basically not a book user or an understanding proponent of dynamic library service. Unless such an "outsider" has always been a reader, a reference-service user, and keenly interested in library functions, there is considerable risk that his efforts will be superficial and only partly effective. A tryout on some specific story or project may help in evaluating a local person for a full- or part-time position.

In Medium-Size and Small Libraries

Although several cities of less than 150,000 population have a full-time publicity director, cities smaller than that will have to designate an able staff member to handle as much P. R. work as possible part time, unless someone is available to come in from other employment for two or three hours a day. Here again, this person's chief practical problem is to plan activities and call on numerous other persons inside and outside the library to help on definite assignments.¹⁰ P. R. work handled on a part-time basis will fluctuate in intensity according to the demands of the person's regular duties, but much can be done. Creating publicity in the library which has only one to five already-busy workers calls for resourcefulness indeed. Not many assistants have an awareness of public attitudes, yet some of the most interesting and effective publicity ideas have come from these small-staff li-

braries, as evidenced by the experience stories in frequent issues of *Wilson Library Bulletin*.¹¹ The smaller the library, the more resourceful it needs to be in getting citizen cooperation to help carry out various projects.

Committee Work

If committee meetings can quickly get to business, it may be profitable to call two or three or a half-dozen staff members to thresh out, plan and assign aspects of one or several projects. A 1958 Evansville staff committee session came up in ten minutes with twenty-eight suggestions on how to bring to citizens' attention the existence and location of the library, e.g., spot radio and TV announcements, street-corner signs, staff talks to clubs, letters to new residents, marquee advertising, bookmarks, picture postcards, etc. Another ten minutes produced nineteen ideas to meet the statement "I don't have time to read." Calling a group of citizens together to plan and carry out publicity for the library is a favorite method during finance or building campaigns. It probably needs cultivating as an all-year device to get more publicity without great cost; for instance, a merchant may be willing to prepare and run a series of store window exhibits, or have his show card writer do the lettering on posters and show cards.

Drawing Ideas from Departments

The person in charge of P. R. needs to be informed of everything interesting or significant that goes on in each aspect of the library, especially from the librarian and each department and branch head. All of them are busy; they often forget or overlook happenings, or news that should be played up, such as the arrival of important new reference service tools, and how they can be useful to many citizens. They may have publicity-minded assistants to initiate or remind them of promising items. The P. R. officer has to keep all these sources frequently alerted, encouraging and welcoming all that can be reported to him. He can utilize much of this for news, exhibits, circulars, etc. A library may run along smoothly in a seeming routine, but in most libraries there is something newsworthy happening every week or month; in large libraries there is something new every day.

PUBLIC RELATIONS INSIDE THE LIBRARY

Each staff member from head librarian to janitor is a creator of public attitudes toward the library. It is not simply a matter of having a public relations officer, a program and an array of bright publicity ideas. Those who fear that publicity may be insincere or inflated are right in insisting that good service and good attitudes by the library staff have to underlie

good library relations with the public. The way the staff looks and acts, dressing neatly, looking cheerful, meeting and serving each reader with a smile, keeping busy but alert to help a reader, speaking so that voice and manner reflect an interest and intention to see that he finds what he came for, doing well each part of the job, following instructions and working to carry out the library's objectives—all these everyday attitudes build up the public belief that librarians and their library are friendly, helpful, competent.¹² Good performance has top priority. These points have special validity in the circulation department, which has the first and most frequent contacts with readers. Some librarians see to it that their most competent and personable workers are posted here, because reader impressions of the whole library organization are especially influenced by what happens in this department. A good library sees to it that a minimum of staff gossip is carried outside, and that assistants refrain from talking over, within the public's hearing, their grievances and criticisms of colleagues and of the institution of which they are a part.

Current library designing and equipping capitalizes on the part played by the building itself. Adequate directional signs and explanatory placards, such as how to use the card catalog, how the building, department and bookcases are arranged—everything which will make it easier for the public to use the library—will make for good will. Readers should enjoy their visits to the library, and the whole staff should be called on for suggestions as to how this can be assured. Several libraries encourage friends with gardens and greenhouses to bring in beautiful plants and flowers, the year round, to be placed on service desks, with conspicuous acknowledgment cards. The public gets pleasure from the gift and the giver.

Trustee policies, decisions and board actions, discussed in Chapter 4, are major elements in the public concept of the library. Trustees will not be inhibited by public opinion but will take action for the public good and then inform the public, rather than assuming that what they do had better be kept quiet. Many libraries have a reporter attend board meetings. If the library has a P. R. officer, publicity from the board should be cleared through him, for it is his job to know how to say what will be of interest to the public. On possibly controversial subjects, board and librarian should work out with him the wording for news releases. A P. R. worker who does not feel quite sure of himself will go over news releases with several colleagues of good judgment to see if a story has any hidden booby traps.

PUBLIC RELATIONS OUTSIDE THE LIBRARY

Having given attention to improving services and impressions inside the library, a library is better prepared to undertake varied outside publicity. The present chapter can be only an outline, not a handbook of publicity methods. The chapter notes list such guides.^{1, 2, 12, 14}

First in importance is to realize that the librarian and agency heads have to get outside the library building, get acquainted with their community (see Chapter 2), and organize publicity aimed at all the citizens, not just those who are already coming into the library. They should find out who the local leaders are, think out what facts about library services will appeal, and try to have five-minute interviews with key persons.

House-to-House Promotion

Only a few libraries have assigned time for selected staff members to do intensive promotion, door to door, taking a few books, lists or circulars, and talking directly with householders, finding out their interests, projects and problems, and describing materials and services they could get. This could give the staff, for the first time, a closeup of adult reactions to the idea of reading and reference help, a realistic understanding of why so many adults don't read, and what it is, if anything, that can appeal to them. A venture by the Providence P. L. to call on business concerns with selected materials and explain how the library could find pertinent information did not turn out as well as hoped. This canvassing is time-consuming, involves careful preparation but may be rewarding.

Speaking to Groups

Whole groups of adults can be reached in far less time by arranging for library talks at their meetings, centering around library materials on the group's interests. There is also an opportunity to explain library objectives, methods and problems. Arrangements can be made over the telephone, but the talk should be well planned, full of incident and lively.

Friends of the Library

Organizing and enlisting the help of a large organized auxiliary group of friendly influential men and women has had notable results in spreading public knowledge of the library, enlisting support, getting funds, and passing bond issues. One wonders why it is not almost universal. Some trustees fear that the "Friends" will get so influential and active that they will tell the trustees how to run the library. A good board should be big-minded enough to work with and welcome ideas from outside. True and fortunately, Friends in some cities have boldly intervened in library situations needing correction and have insisted on and financed critical surveys. They deserve credit for getting a great number of moribund, politics-ridden and thoroughly bad library situations straightened out. A good Friends organization is considered by many progressive librarians of both small and large libraries to be their greatest public-relations asset. But, through the librar-

ian, care should be taken that the officers chosen each year shall be not only strong, courageous leaders determined to push the library ahead, but tactful, discreet, and neither antagonize library and public officials, nor seek office to exalt themselves but to help the library in ways that the community may approve.¹⁵

Newspapers

For the amount of time required from the library, the variety of topics covered, and the wide diffusion of the library's message, top priority goes to the local newspaper. If there are several papers the library will treat them all alike. Everything depends on the care with which the library gets together the facts and ideas for each news story, so it will sound like news, and not merely library propaganda. The most frequent failure is in not putting the point of the story into a short opening sentence and paragraph; as a result the editor must do a large-scale rewrite that takes more time than he thinks the story is worth. Build up an understanding by editor and reporters of what the library is already doing for citizens, as well as what it hopes to do.¹⁶

There are two news services to which libraries may subscribe,¹⁷ and receive timely, competent prewritten releases on a great variety of library matters, ready to be filled in, altered and retyped by the local library to hand its newspaper. Such stories should not be accepted automatically; if a story does not seem to have real-life substance and importance to local newspaper readers, it is better to scrap it. There is also a source for illustrated informational-publicity leaflets, kept up to date.¹⁸ The A. L. A. Headquarters Library can supply or lend scrapbooks of clippings and other material for news stories.

Radio and TV

The time cost involved, even with free program time, is so considerable that the list of large libraries which find regular radio or TV programs profitable is constantly changing. A number of libraries, some of them in cities of only 20,000 or 30,000, prepare one-minute, half-minute or even ten-second spot announcements of news, information about the library and human interest stories. These are run free by the station staff, sometimes using slides from library photos, provided each item is briefly and effectively phrased, centers around a specific subject, and sounds newsworthy: a new book on babies, housekeeping, child care, marriage, hobbies, current events, etc., or a change in rules or staff, or a new or modified service.¹⁹ A quick summary on the value of books and reading, quoting two or three telling phrases from a current news or magazine story,²⁰ may be welcomed. A. L. A. Public Relations Office sends out spot announcements to be

adapted locally. Radio and TV bookreviewing is reported in the Media page of *Publishers' Weekly*.

Direct Printed Publicity

In the advertising world what is called "direct mail" is printed matter distributed by mail and involving postage expense. Though much of this advertising is discarded without being opened, printed circulars and booklists of similar type showing they come from the local library are not likely to be ignored. They can be distributed by Boy Scouts, house to house, or office by office; stores, banks, city departments and many local organizations can enclose them in their mailings of bills and notices. A staff "brainstorming" session will doubtless come up with many devices for distributing library circulars "for free," under local conditions. The problem with this direct printed promotion is printing cost; mimeographing may be the only way out. Some citizen may be sufficiently interested to pay part or most of the cost to print an important message.²¹

Exhibits Inside and Outside

If the library building is located in the midst of the crowd, its front can be remodeled and opened up to exhibit inside activities. Or it can have a large exhibit window facing the sidewalk. Or, if it stands too far back, an exhibit case can be built close to the sidewalk, lighted and equipped with screened plexiglass to protect the contents. Some outside cases have not been designed to be weatherproof, or easily accessible for changing exhibits. Any library can get permission to use window space in vacant stores, or even in occupied busy stores. The range of subjects for exhibits is boundless, with pictures, collections, mementos, working models and a variety of possible materials to supplement books on the subjects.^{22, 23} Explanatory placards are essential. Some libraries that are adept in managing volunteer help get art classes, store decorators and other outsiders to prepare and set up window exhibits, so as to avoid expense and not use much staff time. Whatever time the library can give to exhibits should go into effective exhibits used outside the library as a promotion device, where crowds of people can see them, and they should be so eye catching that people will stop and study them. The same is true of bulletin boards,^{24, 25} especially outside the library, to display lists, posters, announcements and book jackets.

Special Events

Loizeaux gives a publicity calendar which suggests the birthdays of great persons, the anniversaries of great events and great books, and many other

topics for publicity, from newspaper stories to exhibits.²⁶ Some of these events, not overlooking those of a local nature, can be the occasion for public meetings, with notable speakers and considerable fanfare. Similarly a convention in town offers a good chance for the library to publicize the services it can render on the subject in question. The annual Book Week and the highly effective National Library Week have been so effective where the library has organized real participation, often including a local book fair, that both seem almost certain to be much further developed, with profuse instructions and ideas available to help a local library.

Annual Report

Whether or not the library issues to public officials and to other libraries a somewhat detailed report of its affairs and progress, including those of individual departments and branches, some brief attractive summary report including its receipts and expenditures should also be issued and widely distributed to the general public. A six- or eight-page leaflet with a few graphs and pictures, sent out with store bills, bank statements, etc., will help to bring a much clearer concept of the library to a wide circle of citizens than almost any other device, and in cities of 15,000 upward it well justifies its cost.²⁷ Most important is a summary, maybe one column, in the local paper. A graph of increased use is profitable. A. L. A. can lend an assortment of samples for ideas and layout.

Recognition of Cultural Accomplishments

Several libraries have an exhibit and news story whenever a local resident has a book, play or musical piece published. Soon this builds up community realization that the library is a real stimulant to local cultural enterprises. The exhibit should contain photos and materials used by the author. One library has had exhibits of books that *should* be written about its city and state, by showing large cellophane dummies of these nonexistent books, suitably titled and decorated to be impressive, and surrounded by similar actual books from other cities and states.

WHAT IS NEWSWORTHY?

It is hard for librarians to realize and remind themselves that almost everything about the library has possible publicity value. Part of this lies in its books and materials, as discussed in Chapter 30. Growth and success are always good news, e.g., an increase in circulation and in reference questions, or in any aspect of public service, phrased in terms of how much

more the "readers are borrowing," rather than "the library is circulating." If librarian and trustees develop a three- or five-year program it should make headlines for its news value and give a chance to explain the importance of many aspects of the work, and the reasons why.

Economics

One aspect of librarianship, often overlooked, is especially good in its effect on the public—any piece of news as to how the library is simplifying its routines, cutting red tape, and actually saving money, or more often getting greater quantity and better quality for the proportionate amount of money spent. In other words, economy. In the period between the two World Wars, it is well to recall, librarians argued heatedly over "cost-per-circulation" and as to how much a library should spend to do this and that. Economy advocates were reminded that "mere circulation" was an artificial measure, that it indicated nothing about "quality," and that the matter of how to achieve economy was rather beside the point. On the contrary, if a library by dividing total circulation into total expenditure can show that its per-circulation cost is decreasing, or that more books are being processed for the salary costs in the processing department than in the preceding year, it is decidedly a matter of public interest.

Finances

Building up public realization that the library is finding economies and not simply spending all it can get makes the best background for budget requests. Constant emphasis in news stories, exhibits and other publicity on the diversified and detailed individual services rendered the public helps create the impression that library service requires skilled professional workers, and explains why most library budgets allot some 70 per cent of all funds to the salary item. A library serving less than 100,000 population, and spread out among four branches plus central, may be able to get completely favorable publicity and thereby have public support for greater funds, but when the pinch comes, or if a critical survey is made in behalf of the taxpayers, the financial unwisdom of acceding to neighborhood pressure for unprofitable branches would become apparent, and the library would be forced to cut off its least productive enterprises. As soon as the library's budget request is presented to public officials, a news story with graphs and figures should be released to show the public why the budget items are justified. Despite the repugnance of local officials in a town where the library is underfinanced toward figures from a group of similar-size cities which are giving their libraries much more per capita, such comparative

figures should be freely and widely publicized, for in the long run it is public opinion which influences the actions of appropriating bodies.²⁸

Staff

Library personnel, if it has any degree of devotion, any considerable educational and professional preparation, any distinction as to character and ability, is always a matter of public interest. One problem is to overcome the reluctance of individual staff members to permit any publicity about themselves. Obviously, their appointment, promotion, resignation and retirement are news, but so is any honor, important committee appointment or other mark of distinction received. The educational background and professional career of each new person should be played up, partly to counteract the notion, widely held and often resulting in political pressure, that almost anyone can qualify for librarianship. Such stories are also justified to explain the important day-by-day accomplishments of those staff members whose planning, services, initiative and leadership mean much to the whole community. There are many routine duties performed so well by assistants, including clerical workers, that they deserve news stories, or exhibits, or other publicity, such as the display of an unusually large statistical table, skillfully laid out and so perfectly typed that it is a work of art, giving credit to the typist. Or, an exhibit of library mending or rebinding. The public enjoys and appreciates a staff whose work the library's leaders believe in keeping in the public eye.

Branch Publicity

A library with branches must be adequately financed to take proper care of each. This includes publicity in their behalf. Part of this will originate and be issued from central, both for a particular branch and for several or all branches. Centralized publicity is generally more economical and effectual than scattered efforts at several points. The branch librarian is master of his own publicity fate. He can initiate or solicit publicity for his branch, but as much of it as possible should be handled at central, such as printed circulars and lists and traveling exhibits. A branch librarian will undertake many publicity enterprises in his own neighborhood, where he and the branch staff are acquainted, including talks at meetings, phone calls to group heads, programs and meetings at the branch.²⁹ A branch librarian who fears he is inadequate on publicity should delegate it to an assistant.

Surveys

Libraries which have been critically and objectively surveyed deserve credit for shaking themselves out of lethargy. They can profitably capitalize

on the survey as a public relations device. Citizens should be informed why it has been undertaken, to improve services and find economies; what the surveyor finds on first impression, provided he emphasizes devotion and efficiency of the staff, handicaps, and how much the library could do under better conditions; what he finds further on these and other constructive matters, or has discovered of situations in obvious need of correction. A surveyor for a tax-supported library will not indulge in theoretical discussion that larger budgets do not assure better service, but will comprehend the difficulties any library faces in getting itself financed according to A. L. A. standards, and aim for better personnel and methods that will produce a better library.

Some of the most fruitful surveys have been initiated by Friends of the Library, and by local citizen organizations, which often are aware that the library board, or the librarian, is somnolent, and wish to see the library brought up to today's concept of efficient public service. The librarian may be able to suggest such a project. Mere surveys of public opinion about the library may turn out to be much work with little result, because (a) people tend to be complimentary in remarks or answers about a library; (b) many of the persons quizzed have no real idea of what a library should be doing, how well, and at what cost; and (c) in the case of new buildings the average citizen has no idea of the basic principles of library location, design or planning, and has a mental picture of the traditional Carnegie-type building which repels rather than attracts his support. The library may handicap itself by turning up public opinion opposed to what it knows should be done. However, opinion polls sometimes discover worthwhile things if they are carefully planned. One librarian was "alarmed" when 66 per cent of the answers favored a pay-duplicate fiction collection; she evidently had taken the academic view that a free library should not have anything on a rental basis. By tactfully handling the public relations involved, she found the League of Women Voters' survey a source of strength.²⁰

Campaigns

When for any reason, generally for a bond issue for a library building, the voters have to approve some library project involving public expenditures, a large-scale concentrated campaign is essential. The whole community has not only to be thoroughly informed as to facts and reasons, but has to be made enthusiastic to rectify library conditions that in most cases have existed too long. Such factors as crowding, inconvenience of readers, obsolescence, the right of library patrons to have modern facilities, and the careful planning, the attention to economy and efficiency involved in the enterprise, have to be played up to enlist the support and cooperation of the voters. During such an enterprise it is imperative to discover incipient objections and opposition and the causes and reasoning behind them, and

to issue carefully documented and argued explanations to combat them *before* the opposition can get organized. Here again good administration foresees trouble and heads off hostile pressures. Because some campaigns have not been carefully planned, with citizen committees and staff members working actively in every precinct and at every level of the population, they have failed, even for the second or third time, though in the end they have generally won. In one city, bond issues for branches and for central improvement carried two, or three, even five to one, because they were planned and managed as citizen enterprises with great numbers of persons working in the library's behalf.³¹⁻³³

THE SATISFIED CUSTOMER

Customer satisfaction is the real test of a library's effectiveness. The perennial question is whether each reader is getting what he desires, promptly and with good spirit. Attention paid to the adventures and difficulties of the steady procession of individuals who come to the library is the chief element in good public relations.³⁴

GENERAL REFERENCES

The first three items are suggested for background reading and publicity ideas. If possible, supplement them by reading issues of *Public Relations Planner*, note 17. See also references for Chapter 30.

1. Marie D. Loizeaux. *Publicity Primer*. 4th ed. 122 p. 1959. H. W. Wilson Co. \$1.50, paper. Highly practical, full of ideas, with much detailed suggestion as to how to do much with small resources.

2. Sarah L. Wallace. *Promotion Ideas for Public Libraries*. 88 p. 1953. Reprinted 1958. A. L. A. \$1.50, paper. In 14 meaty chapters describes over 300 methods, projects and ideas.

3. Len Arnold, ed. *Aspects of Library Public Relations*. *Library Trends*, v. 7, no. 2, Oct. 1958, p. 237-330. Ten articles, including much that can be practically applied. A classic on P. R. has recently been reissued: Edward L. Bernays. *Crystallizing Public Opinion*. 1961. Liveright Pub. Co. \$5. Includes a 50-p. review of recent developments.

FOOTNOTES AND SPECIAL MATERIAL

4. Adapted from Miriam E. McNally. "Publicity Wonderland" in *Wilson Library Bulletin*. 18: 511-515, March 1944. Used by permission of *Public Relations Planner* from their 1960 32-p. pamphlet, *The Library Image*; see note 17, below.

5. Robert D. Leigh and Katherine W. Scwny. "The Popular Image of the Library and the Librarian." *Library Journal*. 85: 2089-2091, June 1, 1960. Followed by Gerhart Wiebe (public opinion psychologist) "Image; its Definition and Measurement." p. 2092-2097.

6. Richard L. Tobin. "What Is P. R. Anyway?" *Saturday Review*, 43: 109-110. Nov. 12, 1960.

7. Arnold. *op. cit.* Introduction, p. 237-8. Also Fred Wezeman, "Why Tell?" *A. L. A. Bulletin*, 49: 403-404, Sept. 1955.

8. David S. Friend. *Public Relations in Public Libraries: A Survey of Organization and Administration* . . . 90 p. typed. 1959. Thesis, Graduate School of Florida State Univ.

9. Dorothy Cundiff. *Public Relations in Public Libraries . . . in Metropolitan Areas of Over 250,000* . . . 69 p. typed. 1957. Thesis, Graduate School, Univ. of Mississippi. These two theses duplicate each other in many respects, especially enumeration and description of activities, Friend's covering more aspects.

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11. *Wilson Library Bulletin*. Monthly, September to June. Nearly every issue of this periodical reports interesting publicity and promotion devices, especially for small and medium-size libraries. Also the Library Publicity issue of *Illinois Libraries*, Feb. 1961.

12. Sarah L. Wallace. *Patrons Are People*. 2d ed. 48 p. 1956. A. L. A. 80¢. See also Galvy Gordon. "The Library Staff Member and Public Relations." *Wilson Library Bulletin*, 34: 485-487. Mar. 1960.

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14. *Public Relations News*. Weekly. \$3.75 per month. 375 Park Ave., N. Y. 22, N. Y. For large libraries this is full of stimulating ideas and accounts of projects, lists of materials, answers to questions, etc. Many of these large-scale projects can be shrunk and modified for library use. Other materials, including bibliographies, are issued by Public Relations Society of America, 375 Park Ave., N. Y. 22, N. Y. Its 1960-61 Public Relations Register (\$35) lists 3,300 members, many connected with welfare, educational and governmental agencies; no doubt some of their local affiliates could be enlisted to help on library problems.

15. Sarah L. Wallace. *Friends of the Library: Organization and Activities*. 111 p. 1962. A. L. A. \$2.50.

16. See chapter "Getting Into Print" in Loizeaux. *op. cit.* See also Stewart Harral. *The Feature Writer's Handbook*. 342 p. 1958. Univ. of Oklahoma Press. \$5.

17. Public Relations Planner: a Practical Service for Libraries. Monthly. P. O. Box 4132. South Denver Station. Denver 9, Colo. Service-basis fee; complete annual fee \$90. Since 1953 this competent 4-p. monthly News Letter of Ideas has given the suggested text and the impetus for news stories, exhibits and other publicity used in several hundred local libraries. Included also are booklists, circulars, e.g., on reference service, posters and other material for local use. In 1960 it issued in cooperation with Montana State Library *The Library Image, Manual of Library Interpretation*. 32 p. \$1, a valuable outline to guide any library's P R program. Also *Library Publicity Clippings*. Box 753. Salinas, Calif. Monthly news letter, prepared stories and spot announcements.

18. "Your Library Card and How to Use It." 16 p. "Information Unlimited." 16 p. "How to Find Out" (Reference service.) 16 p. "Librarian Wanted" (Recruiting.) 16 p. 25¢ each. Also "What's Good Library Service?" 16 p. 1960. 75¢. etc. Channing L. Bete Co., Greenfield, Mass. Attractive and effective booklets by a library-trustee publicity man.

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21. *Print It Right: How to Plan, Write, and Design School Public Relations Materials*. 48 p. 1953. Nat'l School Public Relations Assoc'n. 201 16 St. Washington 6, D.C. \$1.50.
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23. Louisiana Library Assoc'n. *Quick 'n Easy: 164 Library Exhibits*. 41 p. 1958. Mary G. Stewart. P. O. Box 131, Baton Rouge, La. \$1.50. See circulars re show card machines of several sizes using various types and colors for posters, shelf cards, etc. from such concerns as Show Card Machine, 330 West Ohio St., Chicago 10, Ill.
24. Robert E. Hein and E. K. Davis. *Easy Bulletin Boards*. 49 p. 1959. Easy Bulletin Boards, Box 103, Cleveland, O. \$1.50. How to set up 200 illustrated examples quickly and inexpensively. Also, Kate Coplan. *Poster Ideas and Bulletin Board Techniques*. . . . xxx p. 1962. Oceana. \$8.50. Expert suggestions and 200 illustrations, including 3-dimensional arrangements.
25. Rhyllis Weisjohn, ed. "Bulletin Board Display." *Wilson Library Bulletin*. 34: 569-583. April 1960. Valuable condensation of an M. A. thesis, full of specific ideas with diagrams of principles, arrangement, color, assembling, lettering, illustrations, topics and captions. 37-item bibliography.
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27. Four articles on coverage, preparation, printing and distribution of reports appear in *Library Journal*. 85: 3615-3620. Oct. 15, 1960. See also Herbert Goldhar. "We Tell the Public About Our Library." *American City*. 74: 113-114. June 1959.
28. Joseph L. Wheeler. *Library and the Community*. 417 p. 1924. See Chapter 14 on publicity about organization, methods and finances.
29. Kate Coplan. "Public Relations of a Branch Community." *Wilson Library Bulletin*. 27: 525-527. March 1953.
30. Lucille Washburn. "A Survey Helped Our Library." (*Indiana*) *Library Occurent*. 20: 75-76, 90-93. Sept. 1960.
31. Wheeler. *op. cit.* Chapters 29 and 30 and appendix give details, still timely, of 31 campaigns, ten for buildings. Can be borrowed from large libraries and commissions.
32. William Chait. "Library Building Campaigns." *A. L. A. Bulletin*. 50: 425-428. July 1955. Also Ruth O. Longworth. "Library That Public Relations Built." *Library Journal*. 82: 2098-9. Sept. 15, 1957. and "Second Try at the Polls." *Wilson Library Bulletin*. 32: 488-489+. March 1958. Also Howard W. Winger. "Park Forest Tries for a Public Library." *Library Journal* 80: 534-536. Mar. 1, 1955. Also "Yes, You Can. The Park Forest Library Election." *Illinois Libraries*. 37: 154-7. June 1955. Also John P. Strcit. "Keys to Successful Library Referendum." *Illinois Libraries*. 41: 711-717. Dec. 1959. Also Arthur Kissner. "Publicity for a Building Project." *Illinois Libraries*. 43: 111-117. Feb. 1961. Valuable for details of organizing an elaborate campaign and why it failed. Also Alexander Crosby's Chapter 7, "The Trustee and Fund Raising," in *Winsor Handbook for Library Trustees*. 2d ed. 1959. p. 65-76. Also Guy G. Garrison. *Seattle Voters and Their Public Library*. 81 p. mimeo. 1961. Illinois State Library. Analysis of social and other population factors in each census tract as influencing bond issue vote

failures in 1950 and 1952 and success in 1956, but gives no recommendations for library action to get results. The foregoing items bring to date the following 1955 bibliography:

33. "Bond Issue Campaigns; a selected Bibliography . . ." *News Notes of California Libraries*. 50: 425-8. July 1955.

34. Sarah L. Wallace. "How to Keep the Library Customer." *Library Journal*. 79: 1365-1369, August 1954. Summary of a series of staff and business executive discussions on practical details to improve service attitudes.

PART 2.

Organization, Staffing and Supervising

CHAPTER 10

Factors in Organizing a Library

Organization is the design of the structure, the grouping of positions, which will best carry out the library's planned objectives. On the basis of it the staff is chosen. It involves: (1) identifying the activities and positions necessary to carry out the library's plan and purpose and (2) logically grouping and arranging them according to their functional relationships, so as to assign them to individuals. This may or may not mean creating departments. But it does involve (3) defining the extent and scope of each department or unit and its included activities. It should result in (4) a statement of working relationships between the units and positions, and of the obligations and the lines of authority which run up and down from the person holding each position to others, indicating how far he can go in planning or in directing others, or to whom he should report, and in solving the detailed operations within what he may consider his job.^{1, 2} A diagram may help.

Good organization means simplicity—the essential minimum of departmental machinery and overhead. It has to be tied together by understanding leadership and supervision. Each department and operation has to be organized; even the book collection flourishes according to the attention given to organizing its selection, care and growth. It is not an upper-level affair only, but enters into common routines, into the planning, the method and the day's work of each employee. Organization involves also psychological, social and spiritual factors. Days of enjoyable, resultful service to the ever-changing procession of citizens are more certain when job objectives and relationships are clarified. Anyone appointed to a poorly defined job is likely to define it in his own way, which may fail to meet the objective or may create friction. Defining and describing functions and activities therefore starts at the top and covers the major divisions and each individual position (i.e., work organization and job descriptions, as discussed in the two following chapters).

IDENTIFYING MAJOR OBJECTIVES AND ACTIVITIES

Library staffs grow faster than population because of increasing per-capita reader and informational demands. The organizational structure, the assignment of duties and the job description for each local library position have in general "just grown," with little preplanning or attention to standards and measurements of service performance. The vague national pattern derived from the situation in the many other libraries is a major influence, but this also has evolved under the pressures of local reader demand and staff supply. A rough evaluation of daily service demands by the public gives a natural basis for apportioning staff time between departments or activities. The objective is to assign too few workers as fairly as possible among the fewest possible points, holding off on new activities until new positions have been financed to relieve existing pressure. Many cases prove that these public demands can and should be guided by library policies, which in turn need periodic scrutiny and replanning; for example, in fifteen years Philadelphia increased nonfiction from 30 per cent to 54 per cent of total adult borrowing. This resulted from deliberate policies, planning and organization.

Such policy questions as the following need clarification as a basis for organization; on none of them do we yet have adequate national studies:

1. The importance given the library's function as intellectual stimulus and community power house of information for everyday needs: encouraging reading, study and fact seeking.

2. What goal shall be set as to the ratio of adult fiction to nonfiction lent and of juvenile to total adult? These affect the emphasis on adult cultural and informational services. National statistics show that juvenile circulation, (i.e., of children's books) has become more than half the total, largely because of lack of planning and promoting that would keep adult use increasing at least as fast as juvenile. If "adult education" has any social and cultural meaning, this situation needs attention.

3. Shall the emphasis and budgeting be for numerous comparatively weak branches, or for fewer strong branches plus bookmobile? Many almost futile branches are still being created.

4. What measures shall be taken to simplify routines and not expand staff, for acquisition, preparation and care of more materials?

5. Is the library's budget large enough to set up audio-visual and group-discussion services? Can these be handled in the medium-size library by adding an untrained college graduate and one or two able clerical workers, freeing from routines the appropriate department head to plan and promote such service?

6. What subject specializing shall be adopted as population reaches 100,000, or larger?

7. Based on the foregoing, what relative number of staff shall be allotted to adult, young adult and children's services, and to adult circulation, reference, audio-visual and group services?

8. What value is laid on developing the abilities, educational background and book knowledge of the staff? Is the difficulty of recruiting and holding first class workers, and the better salaries required, adequate reason for increasing the number of untrained and clerical workers?

9. But are there enough typists and secretarial helpers to cover essential paperwork and correspondence, permitting trained librarians to help the readers?

10. In what proportion should effective part-timers be budgeted and trained for peak load relief?

Effect of Large Regional Service Units

Recent national developments in public library service inject a new consideration. The combining of small, weak local units, even middle-size city and small-county units, into large cooperative systems or regional units, is of paramount importance. It is bound to affect the internal organization of several thousand libraries now operating independently.

No preferred pattern has as yet been generally adopted by the large units, nor for the small library after it joins the larger unit.³ Political, financial and psychological factors will doubtless create a variety of patterns, e.g., cooperative regional book ordering and processing, discussed in part in Chapter 26. A library restudying its own organization is today under a social obligation to join in any nearby regional enterprise if it would give better service. It cannot lean over backward to retain its parochial self-sufficiency and independence. Similarly, study should be made of possible cooperation with any college, special or other libraries close by, which might make unnecessary not only the purchase of some materials, but setting up new activities and services, such as subject specialization.

Some Fortuitous Influences on Organization

Five extraneous, fortuitous, often overlooked factors cause illogical organization:

1. Outdated architectural and functional concepts, as in so many buildings erected before 1930, make it impossible to get logical proximities; departments are dictated by structure. Modern functional structures, with open spaces and columns far apart permit flexibility in laying out a logical organization, and in altering it later on.

2. The transient enthusiasms and changing objectives of the profession as a whole, and of individual librarians. To favor group activities, meeting rooms have been brought directly onto the main floor of several buildings, breaking the logical connection between and stealing space from naturally related major activities. Such anomalies unavoidably distort organization.

3. The influence of a dominating personality within a library, perhaps bestriding two activities, such as circulation and reference, and refusing to relinquish one, even when their separation is overdue and an able new person is ready

to develop things more actively. Organizations fitted to the capacities of individuals seldom function well. "Lines of relationships and activities themselves in several cases are derived from the nature of the personnel, rather than from a carefully worked out program of distributing responsibility."⁴ True, functions have to be assigned according to interests and abilities, but the organization framework should not be pushed out of shape. That is, a small library has, in some form, the four major functions of adult circulation, reference, children's service and the preparation and care of the collection, plus as little overhead as possible (as shown in the diagram in Chapter 25). Throwing an organization off balance may be due not to the organization frame but to lack of courage in rectifying personnel problems.

4. Creation of a special little compartment for some individual who cannot fit in smoothly, cannot work happily with others or is a failure at his previous assignment. He may or may not have some valuable abilities, he may hang on because he cannot be dropped for political or personal reasons, but he never integrates with any normal organization.

5. Legal requirements complicating some aspect of work, e.g., that all library purchasing must be done through a city purchasing officer, with increased paperwork and delay. Budget limitations may retard organizing vital functions. Sometimes the dead hand of a benefactor compels distorted objectives. Tradition, such as racial segregation, is another artificial compulsion, leading to duplication.

LOGICAL ARRANGEMENT OF ACTIVITIES

A few organizational principles, helpful in business and public administration, are pertinent. First is to identify and define the various major functions and activities, grouping those that should be related. A hazy lack of definition leads to misunderstandings among staff members. One may begin by an offhand listing of activities, working up to an attempted fairly complete schedule, arranged by groups rather than alphabetically. This compels some order of priority. To the visually minded a diagram may seem the natural easy device to clarify ideas and decisions as one goes along. Any such schedule or diagram needs scrutiny and criticism by colleagues.

A second principle is that everything undergoes healthy change as time passes. Flexibility to meet new situations has to be built into the framework, which should not be expected to remain intact but needs review every year or two. Assignments may have to be loaded on the most able and taken from those less able. The librarian can plan the reorganization in stages, foreseeing successive transfers, retirements and resignations, to insure constructive changes.

A third principle is the value of simplicity, which fosters economy. When developments in public service seem to demand a change in emphasis, or a new service or activity, it is a temptation to create a special department,

or unit, or position, when some staff member could be assigned for part time, and thus avoid a new chain of costs. Enlargement of the organizational framework adds costs, for materials and personnel, which may be badly needed for portions of the existing organization. Creating new activities is not a sign of progress unless existing activities are highly efficient and are meeting the needs.

Grouping

Almost any librarian would begin at once to select those primary functions which most evidently fall into one or another related group: selection and acquisition of materials; cataloging and other preparation of materials for use; the adult reader services, and we break this into three aspects: (a) the promotion and guidance of book borrowing, and the circulation routines; (b) the reference and informational services; (c) group activities and materials, e.g., films; then the services for young adults (high school age); the services for children; the branches or branch system, if any, along with bookmobiles and other distributing points; and the administrative overhead, including management, clerical, fiscal records, statistics, building care, etc.

The foregoing groups, embracing many activities, appear in most of the diagrams later in this chapter, and need not be analyzed here. To most librarians these groups of activities represent a natural series which can be arranged into a logical organization because each has distinctive character: (a) sufficiently different from the others so that its responsibility, guidance and promotion can well be assigned to some individual; and (b) sufficient in volume of service or activity to justify a separate group of workers.

Frequently library organization diagrams show the seven major groups of activities listed above divided into two larger categories: (a) overhead and nonpublic; (b) services to the public. This distinction probably influences some of the diagrams below.

DEFINING SCOPE AND AUTHORITY

A written description of each group of departments and positions and their scope should be brief and simple, clearly defining jurisdiction and authority: just where decisions are to be made; who is to be directly responsible, initiate, give instructions, supervise and measure results. Overlappings and possible conflicts need to be foreseen, explained and settled in the statement. To the extent that a diagram can show lines of responsibility the following diagrams include them.

Another principle is to place authority and decision-making as close as possible to the point of action. This encourages each executive to develop

his assistants and to initiate and recommend action. Avoid adding levels of authority, that is, keep to a "flat structure" instead of a "steep structure." These middle levels lengthen the "chain of command," often delay, sometimes block suggestions and communication up and down; more personalities have to be dealt with; and they do not always facilitate things enough to repay the costs.

"Ten Commandments of Good Organization"

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"1. Definite and clean-cut responsibilities should be assigned to each executive. 2. Responsibility should always be coupled with corresponding authority. 3. No change should be made in the scope or responsibilities of a position without a definite understanding to that effect on the part of all persons concerned. 4. No executive or employee, occupying a single position in the organization, should be subject to definite orders from more than one source. 5. Orders should never be given to subordinates over the head of a responsible executive. Rather than do this the officer in question should be supplanted.

"6. Criticisms of subordinates should, whenever possible, be made privately, and in no case should a subordinate be criticized in the presence of executives or employees of equal or lower rank. 7. No dispute or difference between executives or employees as to authority or responsibilities should be considered too trivial for prompt and careful adjudication. 8. Promotions, wage changes, and disciplinary action should always be approved by the executive immediately superior to the one directly responsible. 9. No executive or employee should ever be required, or expected, to be at the same time an assistant to, and critic of, another. 10. Any executive whose work is subject to regular inspection should, whenever practicable, be given the assistance and facilities necessary to enable him to maintain an independent check of the quality of his work."

Span of Control and Delegation

Recently there has been considerable criticism of the theory that one normal person can hardly undertake to span, i.e., head up, supervise and do justice to, more than six or eight other "header-uppers" of departments or activities.⁶ It has been found unrealistic in many situations. However, in larger libraries it is essential to divide the librarian's direct contacts, and his desk routines, by assigning the first assistant or someone in an upper executive post to take over part of them, and to pass on everything possible to the various department heads for them to settle and clean up.

The McDiarmids advocate that the director himself shall have not over ten persons to direct, for efficient supervision.⁶ Otherwise, tensions or poor performance may become evident. In his supervisory capacity, he may fail

to see around department heads or branch librarians who themselves fail to perceive, or do not keep him posted realistically. The executive who is quick at perceiving administrative needs, who can delegate many of his duties and get nearly as good results as though he managed everything himself, is one who can manage a larger span of control than one who cannot let go, spends all his time on details, fears to let anyone else make decisions and carries all the problems and worries in his own hat. By proper handling he can make suggestions, shift personnel, consult with department heads and develop their abilities to handle more and more of their own affairs. He need not see each of them every day, or for many minutes, to be apprised of their problems and to discuss and arrive at solutions. This ability to "tie things together" at the top greatly influences the span of control.

But many libraries are weak in their upper executive range. This may result from an unselfish enforced desire of head librarians to put every salary dollar into that always too meager portion of the staff which directly serves the readers, and to forgo overhead positions. It is not easy to achieve balance between these two viewpoints. The McDiarmids' valuable discussion cites the Queens Borough library by-laws; among other duties the librarian "shall be held responsible for the proper performance of duties of heads of departments."⁷ This is a reminder that the board itself is responsible to the public, the librarian is responsible to the board for everything, and the department head is responsible to the librarian, who has a prime obligation to know what goes on.

Centralize or Decentralize?

Chapter 24 discusses whether decisions shall be made at central, or left to each branch, or by committees representing all branches. How much paperwork can be concentrated at central? These questions suggest frequent policy discussion. "Pushing everything down the line" frees upper executives from routine that can be done effectively by lower-salaried persons, a principle of organization deserving more attention.⁸

"Line and Staff"

This term describes two types of function within the same organization, especially in the larger libraries. A staff officer is one "who is leaned on" for thinking, seeing, planning, recommending and reporting or coordinating, in some special aspect, in contrast to the line officer whose job is to give work instructions and get things done. In a small library one person, for example, may be assigned to give a little time to gathering data which will help the librarian arrive at a decision. The various types of research discussed in Chapter 8 are a "staff" function. Staff officers help the line officers get results, cutting across and serving the whole organization. But they

do not give orders to or supervise the rest of the personnel in doing their daily work. "Line" functions are those of headship and direction, and the line of authority extends from the librarian through department heads and supervisors down to the final assistant. Actually the term "line and staff" is a flexible one, for hardly anyone in the organization is pure line or pure staff.

Staff officers refrain from direct orders or instructions to either heads or assistants of departments other than their own. This does not mean that they have no convictions. But their valuable contributions come through their special knowledge, their discussions with and suggestions to those who make decisions, activate programs and see that they are carried out.⁹ Staff officers, having no authority, may tend to be visionary, overextending and tactless, may try to interfere in their zeal, may express opinions or make suggestions conflicting with department heads' views or wishes or timing. The line officer may be impatient with staff officers and give them and their ideas the brushoff, perhaps in an embarrassing manner. The head librarian needs to watch for and prevent such difficulties.

Coordinating

Size and complexity mean that each part knows less about and works less with all the other parts and persons. The "staff" function of coordination cuts across several or all departments, sets up intercommunications and gives to all common aims and viewpoints, helps find solutions that all can adopt, and breaks down departmental isolation and self-sufficiency. Some examples of it appear in the following diagrams. But coordination starts with the librarian and each department head. No setup can overcome his failure to keep informed about each staff member and his work in each department and branch. He can show his concern by helping to guide and straighten out problems. The head of a large library sometimes knows little about those not under his own roof, as at branches, and they feel it.

This increase in complexity is in somewhat geometrical ratio. Two persons or departments have one direct communication line. Eight, as diagrammed in an octagon, have twenty seven cross lines to connect everyone. Keeping each informed of what goes on is not to be overlooked when creating new organizational units.¹⁰

Many larger libraries have "staff" coordinators within each of three major age groups, children, young people and adult, to tie together the book selection, services and viewpoints between the staffs at all branches with those at central, thereby giving each the benefit of the experience and knowledge of all.¹¹ This is accomplished by staff meetings, committees, issuing of a continuous flow of instructional releases and booklists, and especially by frequent visits to all service points by the coordinators and their assistants.

Coordination of these and similar overall functions, such as personnel or publicity, may be delegated to the librarian's first assistant in systems not large enough to afford age-group or functional coordinators or "staff" officers. But if the regular department heads are good supervisors and coordinators as they should be, special coordinators are needed only in large systems.

Proportioning Services and Staff

Proportioning has to start with total staff and salary budget available. This is influenced by national patterns, e.g., the fact that despite the 1956 recommendation of one staff member per 2,500 population,¹² the 1960 figures for 42 large libraries (cities of over 300,000) show that 16 already had one staff member (total staff) for less than 2,000 population.¹³ The 1956 A. L. A. recommendation that one-third the total staff (not counting building staff) be professionals (item 107) has been overtaken by an average 42 per cent in these 42 large libraries and 47 per cent and 49 per cent in excellent systems like Indianapolis and Brooklyn's.¹⁴ And despite efforts of librarians to keep down the proportion of total budget spent on all salaries, it had in 1958 already reached 66-68 per cent average in large groups of cities, such as 117 cities of 50,000 to 100,000 population.¹⁴ In 1960 the proportion averaged over 70 per cent in the 42 largest libraries, including building maintenance staffs which averaged a little over one-seventh of total personnel, and absorbed 8.77 per cent of the library budgets.¹⁵ But more staff and a greater proportion of professionals by no means *prove* that a library is more efficient; many libraries need better assignment of work and far better supervision.

If, as has been argued, these salary costs should logically be smaller in large libraries because of presumed economies, it seems fair to assume that a good library, giving a high type of public informational service, could justify spending 68 per cent of its total budget for salaries, for one assistant per 2,000 population, with 35 to 40 percent of its staff (other than building maintenance) professionally trained and concentrating on services to the readers. To attain these goals close attention has to be given to careful assignment of work, to work method study, and to making each dollar count. In 12 of the 42 largest libraries, janitorial and maintenance salaries took more than 10 per cent of the budget, leaving just that much less for books.¹⁵ Attention to such costs seems more essential than some other present concerns of librarians. This is a matter of organization and management.

Trustees, librarian and department heads should share in deciding these questions before an organization can be set up or altered, or a staff proportioned in regard to its physical units, its services and the per cent of its professional and clerical workers. Few libraries are counterparts of any

other, though general patterns may prevail, especially among the small independent libraries.

ORGANIZATION DIAGRAMS

A diagram, revised every year or two, will help show everyone how the library operates. It needs to indicate the major functions or departments, possibly some secondary activities, all in their logical relationship, and with the lines of authority from top to bottom, especially the division of responsibility between chief and assistant librarian, or upper assistant, as to which other persons or departments they supervise. But it cannot be taken too seriously.¹⁵ It can scarcely reveal whether a department or unit is over-staffed or overworked. The small library diagram in Chapter 25 shows activities but no departments. The six diagrams which follow show larger and larger organizations, and attempt to suggest workable groupings and relationships. A. L. A. Headquarters Library has diagrams from many libraries, often included in staff manuals or survey reports.

Creating Departments

Simplicity is a worthy goal and postponing and keeping new departments at a minimum tends to economy and flexibility. This is to be seen in the small library diagram in Chapter 25, and in Diagrams 1 and 2 here, which show responsibility for a special function, or materials, or services, according to the interests and abilities of successive staff members, but without setting up any actual department, much less setting it off in a room by itself. A library serving 6,000 or 8,000 population, with three or four workers, is still too small for departments.

The following series of diagrams assumes the library board as heading the organization. Personnel figures do not include building staffs.

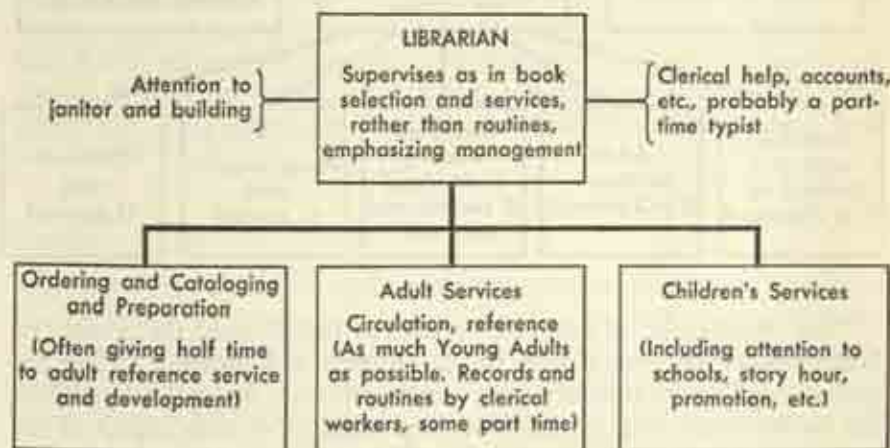
Diagram 10-1 indicates a commonly found distribution of work among four persons. It suggests lessening the librarian's clerical duties to give more time for management, public relations and strengthening of services; the librarian will share in direct service to readers, but needs to avoid purely clerical duties.

Studies in 1938 of 34 libraries, and in 1944 of 60 libraries, seem to show a typical sequence of departmentation:¹⁶ circulation, technical processes, children's work, reference, with the proportion of reference workers at central increasing in medium-size libraries and taking precedence over children's workers when cities get to be as large as 100,000. The inevitable trend to greater attention to the informational function indicates that, at present, trained information workers form a much larger proportion than indicated in these earlier studies.

In most smaller libraries there has to be some combination of duties among two or three workers, depending on their qualifications, e.g., the cataloger is also reference librarian during the busy reader-hours. Educated knowledgeable persons should be assigned where their subject and book knowledge may help readers most effectively, assisted by clerical workers to do clerical work. The following departmental chapters, e.g., Chapter 28 on processing work, discuss the distribution of work between professional and clerical workers, in the special fields.

At what point is a new department justified? For libraries, a department may be defined as a distinct, coherent, specialized and important activity,

Diagram 10-1. Four-Person Library

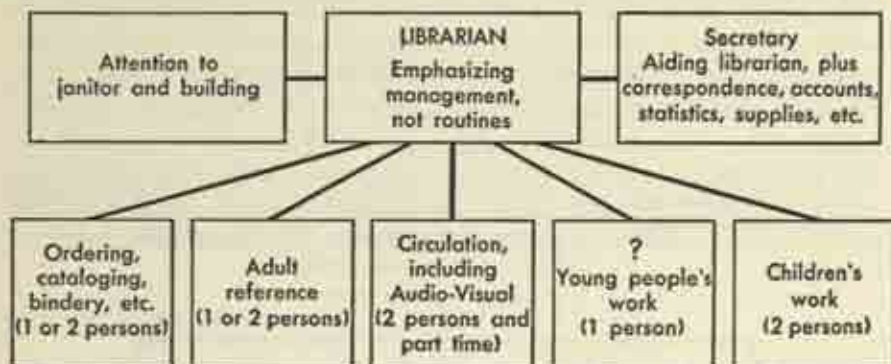


extensive enough to require the full-time service of at least two persons. Such a definition means that a "department" is something more than a title, more than an assignment of special work. Unless substantial enough to involve more than merely an assignment for two workers on something a little different from the duties of other colleagues, it hardly constitutes a department. Sometimes a small activity is blown up into a prestige unit, conferring the title "head of the X department" (perhaps as an empty substitute for an adequate salary). But this would not signify a true department. A department involves considerable added overhead cost; the extra machinery may slow down results. Its head is soon involved in new administrative work, paraphernalia, correspondence and other paperwork, instead of turning out results; soon a clerical assistant is called for, new activities are undertaken, with a yearning to build up a good-sized staff.¹⁷

It is often possible to define a function carefully, assign it to an able individual, give him the obviously essential professional or clerical help,

and let things develop naturally, simply and economically. The results in output and service can then be measured. If a new department is not justified, things can be kept running on this simpler basis or curtailed. It may be better to invest in a higher-salaried person with strong leadership ability, to strengthen the present organization where it needs reinforcement, than to create a new separate unit.

Diagram 10-2. Ten-Person Library



There seem to be no data or even rules of thumb as to the number of "departments" per size of staff. But as Diagram 10-2 shows, a staff of ten persons need not be divided into actual departments; but at least activities can be definitely assigned, including responsibility for some aspect of the work. The answer is influenced in part by the building, e.g., many libraries of this size have a children's department because the children's room is upstairs, and a separate staff has to operate it; this helps justify creating a department.

Diagram 2 would apply to libraries in the 20,000 population range. Many small libraries continue to attempt reference service by circulation assistants at their general adult service desks. But reference work cannot be strongly developed without special recognition and leadership. Current public demands for stronger informational service justify the separate setup for adult reference in Diagram 2, including a trained worker and separate service desks as discussed in Chapter 18. The volume of work, attempting an open-hour schedule of sixty to seventy-two hours a week, calls for an added person, a clerical worker, in each major activity, partly because new services and new types of material, e.g., audio-visual, crowd into the picture; they do not yet warrant separation, but increase the pressure. Many will insist that today's problems call for a young people's worker in a city of 20,000; this appears in Diagram 2 as a basis for local discussion. Many librarians con-

sider that a strong reference service should be built before young adult's work is undertaken, partly because many of their requests can best be met at a reference desk.

Proportion of Professional and Clerical

The whole policy and philosophy of the library, and more importantly the quality and strength of service to the public, is involved in the issue: what proportion of the staff (not counting building care) should be professional, i.e., with four years of general college background plus a year of library training? In Diagram 2 if the librarian and heads of the four major services are trained, i.e., half of the total staff, the salary total will run substantially above that of a one-third professional, two-thirds clerical staff, advocated by many. It may well be claimed that to handle the more specialized current demands a public library staff should include trained persons for 40 per cent of its positions, though not distributed in equal proportion in all departments: e.g., circulation work does not require the high proportion of educated and trained personnel that informational services do.

Secretary vs. Assistant Librarian

It is evident that with a staff no larger than ten or fifteen, as in Diagram 2, a secretary can be more useful to the librarian and to the whole staff and at less cost than an assistant librarian. The "span of control" is still easily covered by the librarian. Inescapable paperwork, accounts, correspondence, statistics are overwhelming even after streamlining. In most libraries of this size such duties, scattered through the staff, divert time from reader and book services. Instead of seeking a trained first assistant, such a librarian should consider whether both would not be engulfed in paperwork routines for lack of any secretarial help; there is a prevailing lack of typing help in most libraries. The librarian and to some extent the service staff can get relief from nonadministrative, nonprofessional burdens, to which many librarians give more than half their time, by having a competent secretary, or a typist, whereas in a group of ten a trained assistant librarian would hardly justify the cost. Doubtless a second typist would be very busy, including the typing for the catalog department. The most able assistant can be designated "in charge" in the librarian's absence, and contribute administrative help on occasion.

With a staff of twenty or twenty-five (i.e., serving a population of 40,000 to 50,000) the situation has changed, as in Diagram 3, and the volume of work, services, inside and outside contacts may well justify a professional assistant librarian as well as a secretary (as discussed in Chapter 5, on the librarian) and typists. If each staff member is chosen for competence and

pulls his oar, aided by a modicum of part-time high school or college student help for desk routines at rush hours, this organization could handle a circulation of 300,000 to 350,000, give a large volume of good reference service, develop intensive service to grade and high school students, and become a high-level library.

Diagram 10-3. Twenty-Five Person Library

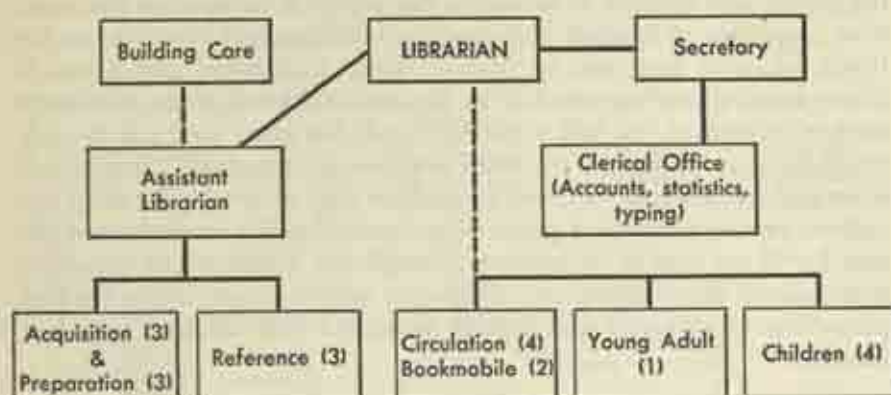


Diagram 10-3 shows six major activities, with enough personnel to justify at least four departments, leaving young adult and bookmobile service not labeled departments but with two persons each, if feasible. Few twenty-five-person libraries have a bookmobile, and 50,000 is too small a city to justify any branch. The diagram may be termed enumerative and descriptive; it only suggests, by dotted lines, that if the assistant librarian is well prepared as to books and reference work, he may supervise book selection, acquisitions and processing and perhaps reference. It depends on the interests and leadership abilities of the two heads. The first assistant may develop his administrative skill by learning how to economize and upgrade the building care. He will help the librarian on preparation of data and reports, possibly also on publicity, at least that dealing with books and services. But some able secretaries can organize and delegate various items listed in Diagram 3 so effectively as to leave time to do considerable publicity, e.g., writing news stories, attending to printing, etc. The assignment of the duties just enumerated, for Diagram 3, calls for the librarian's judgment of abilities, and the diagram has to be finished accordingly, with authority lines running from the two overhead persons to each of the departments listed.

Two-Function Responsibilities

Frequently, person X has to organize, supervise and share in order and catalog work (e.g., short-cut marking of decisions on the title pages or key

cards, so that with clerical help the book flow can be managed in the quieter forenoons) and give the afternoons to reference work. Only infrequently should person Y, who specializes in knowledge of children's books and services, be drafted for adult work; juvenile circulation often comprises half of the large total and deserves full-time attention. Adult circulation and reference are sometimes combined, concentrating on the same reader-age group. But often the time that should go into knowledgeable servicing of the insides of books, to meet individual reader needs, is spent on charging and return routines, and justice is not done to reference work.

Current proportions of juvenile and adult circulation in a given library may not be a sound basis for apportioning staff, for seldom is an attempt made to develop one or the other, because no objective has been defined. If one-third juvenile, one-third adult fiction, one-third adult nonfiction borrowing were to be taken as a definitely worthwhile objective, many libraries might profitably shift their staff assignments to the community's benefit.

Diagram 10-4. Fifty-Person Library

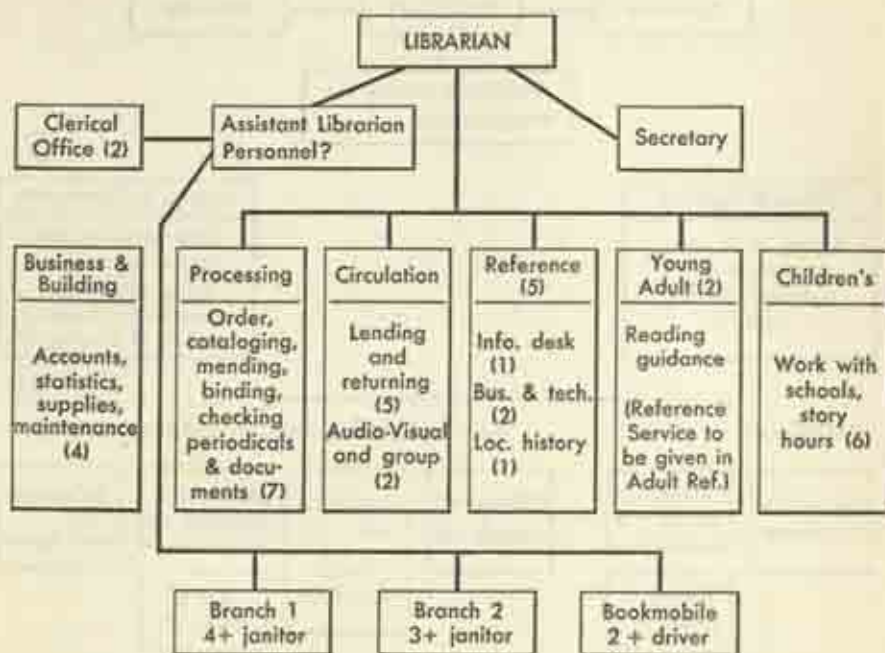
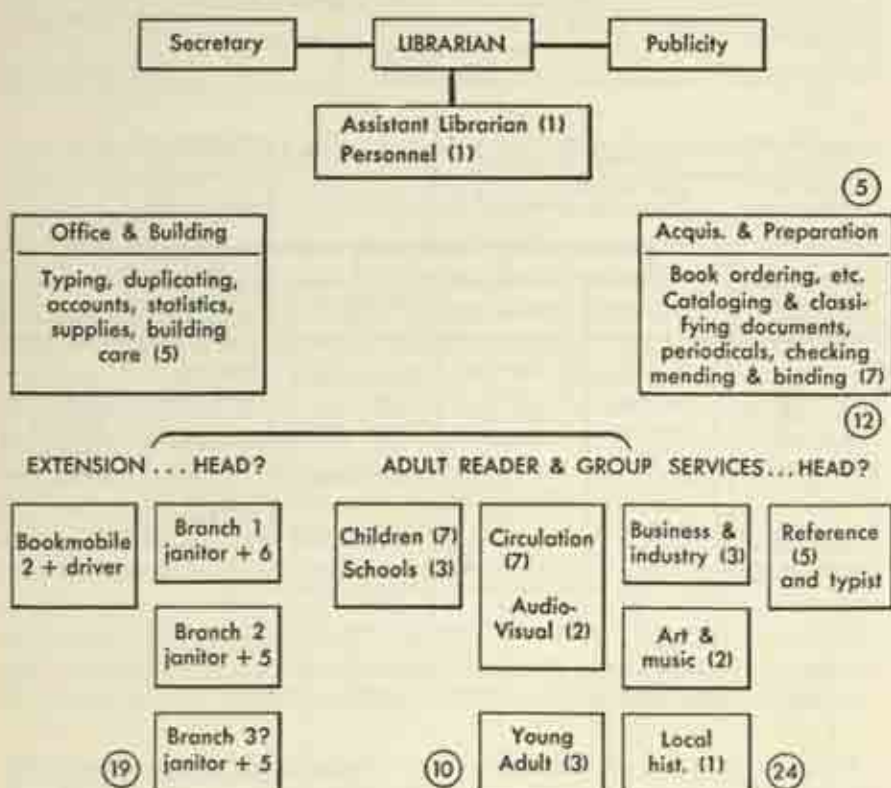


Diagram 10-4 shows a minimum of overhead and preparation staff, emphasizing intensive reader services. It assumes someone interested and capable will give part time to publicity. Often the central library department group is supervised by the librarian, whereas the business office, jan-

tors and branches are overseen by the first assistant, as indicated by the lines. A "director of adult services" might supervise part of the right-hand group, giving the librarian more time for general administration. To avoid added overhead, audio-visual service is shown under circulation, and grade school service under the children's department. Two branches would be normal for a city of 100,000, as discussed in Chapter 24.

A few under-100,000 population libraries have a business-technical department; others have an art and music department, as discussed in Chapter 19. Many cities this size have a service point, though not a department, for local history, but too often no special person to man it. Group activities and audio-visual materials may be included in the circulation department, as here. Diagrams 4 and 5 show two assistants diverted from other departments, to start services in this latter field. It may be better to use the money for part-time high school and college student assistants in peak periods, to avoid diverting trained persons to shelving, charging books, etc.

Diagram 10-5. Seventy-Five Person Library



In addition to these members of the regular staff, in a library of this size there will be part-time help equivalent to five full-time employees;

and the building staff will make five or six more.

Diagram 10-5, for a population of about 150,000 introduces a possible third branch, a possible full-time publicity person, and possibly not a supervisor for the branch-extension staffs numbering fifteen or so, and for the adult reader and group-service staffs of perhaps twenty. If one assumes that each branch and department will have a competent head, would not the money be spent better for more trained or clerical assistants closer to readers and information seekers than for these overhead positions? The authority lines from librarian and assistant librarian to each department are left to be filled in after deciding what they are to supervise.

As few libraries of this size have reached \$3 per capita budgets (in this case \$450,000), or about \$300,000 for salaries, Diagram 5 implies an average of \$4,000 for 75 employees, which might mean too small a proportion of trained workers. The extension and adult service supervisors might be omitted, expecting the department heads and branch librarians to strengthen and step up their planning, supervision and outside contacts, relieved by more clerical help. They would report to the assistant librarian or to the librarian. For this size population a subject department would be justified, plus attention to local materials, to draw in and serve enlarged adult clienteles more ably. Three branches make janitorial costs a substantial drain. With some mechanization they could be taken care of by the equivalent of two full-time branch maintenance men (See Chapter 33). Unless all three branches are sure to be very busy, two and a bookmobile would suffice, and would be in correct proportion to total staff and a population of this size. This would make possible more intensive informational services, to reach the entire community, at central and two profitable branches.

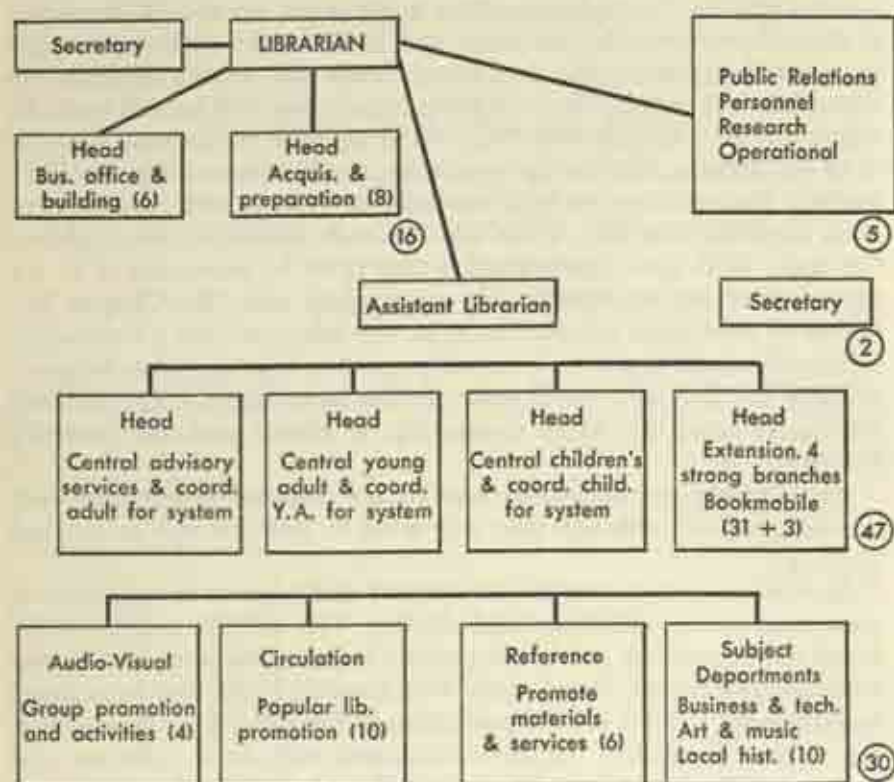
The diagrams and discussions here are not intended to settle but only to raise questions, although they may seem to lean one way or another.

As cities increase in size the occupations and interests of their citizens grow more varied, specialized and exacting. The outlying population becomes more congested and builds pressure for more branches. In Diagram 6 we assume four busy branches and a bookmobile, supplementing a strong central library, to serve 200,000 population, at five circulations per capita or one million circulation. To further dissipate staff, book collection and budget would weaken both the central library's and the branches' non-fiction and intensive services. Doubtless each branch would have a heavy circulation and reference service, lending as much adult nonfiction as fiction, and if it actively developed its young adult and children's services, the branch staffs would have to average seven or eight workers, plus part-time help. With a busy bookmobile, probably lending 100,000 books per year, and four such branches, the need for good supervision raises the question whether the total operation calls for an extension director, although per-

haps the filling of this position can be postponed until there are five or six branches.

Diagram 6 shows this setup of about thirty-three workers plus part-timers for branch and bookmobile service, and about sixty-five on a more specialized and extensive central staff than we have so far discussed. Several libraries are organized somewhat as in Diagram 6, with three or four subject departments, a group-activity program, considerable audio-visual material and service, and a strong emphasis on informational service to adults, young adults and children.

Diagram 10-6. One-Hundred Person Library



As shown here the librarian spans office and building, acquisition and preparation, personnel, public relations and research involved in local planning. The assistant librarian may be especially good on public services and span four major public services, including branches. The heads for the three age-level services at central act also as coordinators for the system. These three and the extension head are shown as reporting to the librarian

or assistant librarian; the authority lines can be filled in after deciding. The head of adult services might be a highly competent administrator and able to supervise the four central activities shown on the bottom row, and consequently be both a line and staff officer. In many situations this would be feasible and it would cut the assistant librarian's load so he could give more time to general duties or community contacts.

Alternate schemes to divide the responsibilities of librarian and first assistant will suggest themselves. An obvious but not always effective device is to introduce a supervisory head for all, or all public, central departments. Do libraries of this size need and can they afford one or more "middle managers" between the librarian or assistant librarian and the department heads?

Someone may be needed to head up or coordinate all the adult, the young adult, or the children's facilities and services, cutting across several departments, or someone to head several branches or a large complete central library. Coordinators as advisors and stimulators for the three age levels seem to strengthen the system; but they do not act as executives. In several libraries administrative studies made by nonlibrary experts have added or recommended more upper-level executives, increased salary costs without substantial increase in efficiency, and removed the department heads and their staffs one step further from the library director. In Diagram 6 the three major central heads with line functions also act as age-level coordinators for the system.

A well-running organization may be weakened by changes based on theoretical grounds. The idea of a supervisor of technical processes is discussed in Chapter 28. Priorities and overhead of subject departments are discussed in Chapter 19. The present chapter needs expansion into a substantial book, discussing situations in a score of libraries in each of a dozen size categories. Such an analysis would doubtless reveal some patterns, and throw light on the merits of many proposals as to how to set up, finance and operate departments, branches and activities. The study being made by the A.L.A.'s Library Administration Division and the International City Manager's Association is focused on metropolitan areas of over 300,000 population. A preliminary review of their problems by Gscheidle absolves us from attempting to discuss these specialized situations, and contains many ideas for libraries somewhat smaller.¹⁸

EVALUATING THE ORGANIZATION

A library's organizational self-rating may be aided by considering the following points:¹⁹

1. The strength of staff loyalty to and identification with the library's objectives, as to quality and quantity of work done, concern for cutting waste and costs, and improving service to the public, and improving process methods.

2. The degree of mutual confidence and teamwork among staff members, and with their heads.

3. The extent to which each person knows just what he is to do and where he fits into the organization and is free from antagonisms and frictions with associates and with other departments.

4. The extent to which delegation is effectively achieved, and the extent to which staff members feel their ideas, knowledge, experience are being used in the library's process of decision making.

5. The degree of competence among various parts of the staff to help in solving library problems, and effectiveness of communication up and down and across the staff.

6. The level of the leadership skills of the department heads and their awareness of leadership processes. And the aptitude of the staff itself. What records of performance are available from each person, especially from recent appointees, to show from time to time whether quality is improving or may be deteriorating through unfavorable turnover?

7. The extent to which readers old and young are getting the materials and services for which they come to the library, and the proportion of the citizens, especially adults, who do come.

GENERAL REFERENCES

NOTE: There is little in print on current organization in the everyday run of public libraries. The first two items are most profitable for general background.

1. Errett W. and John McDiarmid. *The Administration of the American Public Library*. 250 p. 1943. A. L. A. and Univ. of Illinois Press. o. p. A survey of 202 libraries; organization and departmentation given special attention, p. 69-143, with useful recommendations.

2. Carleton B. Joeckel, ed. *Current Issues in Library Administration*. 392 p. 1939. Univ. of Chicago Press. o.p. 18 papers read at 1938 Library Institute. Includes two on organization, by public administration specialists and two by librarians on departments in large libraries.

FOOTNOTES AND SPECIAL MATERIAL

3. *State Laws Under the Library Services Act: Supplement 2*. 123 p. Bulletin 1960, No. 27. U. S. Office of Education. Also Harold S. Hacker, et al. *A Federated Library System in Action*. 12 p. mimeo. 1959. Rochester Public Library. A concise summary of many organizational problems.

4. Review of Maurice Tauber's report of his study of Queens Borough catalog department, 1956, in *Library Resources & Technical Services*. 1: 142-147. Summer 1957.

5. W. W. Suojanen. "Span of Control—Fact or Fable?" *Advanced Management*. 20: 5-13. Nov. 1955. One of many articles on the overemphasis given the idea.

6. McDiarmid. *op. cit.* p. 105. See also Max D. Richards and W. A. Nielander, eds. *Readings in Management*. 882 p. 1958. South-Western Publishing Co. \$7.50. p. 548-564, with numerous citations.

7. McDiarmid. *op. cit.* p. 47.

8. Louis A. Allen, *Management and Organization*, 353 p. 1958. McGraw-Hill. \$7. Chapters 6 and 7, on delegation.

9. There is a large literature on "line and staff." See the clarifying Chapter 10, p. 198-223, of Louis A. Allen's *Management and Organization*, 353 p. 1958. McGraw-Hill. \$7. Also Robert C. Sampson, *The Staff Role in Management*, 226 p. 1955. Harper. \$4. Also Ernest Dale and Lyndall F. Utwick, *Staff in Organization*, 241 p. 1960. McGraw-Hill. \$6. Deals with large, complicated organizations but has many ideas for libraries of over 100,000 population.

10. This reference, to an o.p. book, has been cancelled.

11. McDiarmid, *op. cit.* p. 203. Also, for the larger libraries, see Emerson Greenaway, "No Library Department Is an Island." *Library Journal*, 76: 1666-1672. Oct. 15, 1951.

12. *Public Library Service*, 74 p. 1956. A. L. A. p. 43.

13. Enoch Pratt Free Library, *Salary Statistics for Large Public Libraries for 1961*. Large lithoprint sheet.

14. U. S. Office of Education, *Statistics of Public Library Systems*, Circular No. 594, July 1959. Also Circular 600 . . . Population 35,000-49,999, Sept. 1959. See references to Table 2 in Chapter 8, above.

15. Carter C. Higgins, "The Organization Chart: Its Theory and Practice." *Management Review*, 45: 889-893, Oct. 1956. An enlightening takeoff. Also "Company Organization Charts," in National Industrial Conference Board, *Studies in Personnel Policy*, No. 139, 1953. Most literature on this subject deals with large concerns and is hard to adapt. See Natalie C. Batts, ed. *Organization Charts: Selected List of Materials in the Library*, 12 p. 1953. Columbia Univ. Graduate School of Business Library. Lists 63 articles or publications.

16. Joseph L. Wheeler and A. M. Githens, *American Public Library Building*, 1941, p. 38. The valuable large annual statistical tabulations of salary and other costs in libraries of 300,000 population upward, published by Enoch Pratt Library, do not show distribution of employees by departments or branches, but do show departmental salary cost figures. Also Lowell Martin, "The Optimum Size of the Public Library Unit," in Carleton B. Jockel, ed. *Library Extension: Problems and Solutions*, 260 p. 1946. Univ. of Chicago Press. o.p. A valuable study of about 60 libraries serving 5,000 to 75,000 population, showing the sequence of departmentation somewhat similar to the foregoing text. Its commentary on the setting off of special departments is important.

17. A valuable humorous commentary on this universal trend is Cyril N. Parkinson, *Parkinson's Law* . . . 113 p. 1957. Houghton.

18. Gertrude E. Gscheidle, "Departments in Public Libraries." In *Library Trends*, v. 7: 437-447, Jan. 1959. Valuable summary of problems in 16 cities of over 300,000, with organization charts for four.

19. Adapted from Rensis Likert, "Measuring Organizational Performance." *Harvard Business Review*, 36: 41-50, March-April, 1958.

CHAPTER 11

Job Organizing: Layout, Simplifying, Measuring

This chapter follows that on organization and precedes the personnel chapters because the creation of a position and the selection of personnel have to be based on the character of the individual's daily work. True, studies as to streamlining, simplifying and possibly mechanizing any part of the work are the subsequent responsibility of department heads as supervisors, but these studies may eliminate a whole or part of a position, may remove it from the professional to the clerical category, and may drastically change job instructions given to workers. We have few such studies and have to look outside of library literature.¹⁻¹³

The idea of timing, measuring and pressuring workers to greater production at less cost, and arriving at standards of output at so many cents worth of time per unit does not appeal to most librarians. The present object is to encourage librarians to "work smarter, not harder," avoiding unnecessary processes and movements, thus releasing more staff time to serve the public. Additional time-saving methods are suggested in Chapters 17, circulation; 28, processing; 31 and 32, business and clerical offices.

The upcurve of paperwork in all occupations is staggering; in the clerical categories, jobs have multiplied in twenty years five times faster than the population. Mechanizing (automation is one aspect of it) is only one time-saver, especially effective in the large libraries, and applicable for only a few library operations. Every operation needs challenge, especially in aspects of the work often overlooked, such as the service return per budget dollar from a proposed small, weak branch which a library board may be under pressure to establish, when obviously it can never develop a profitable circulation. By refusing to create such branches the saving of staff and book funds needed at more profitable points, where more readers will be better served, will be far greater than that derived from a whole battery of time-saving devices. But the latter are important too.

DEFINING, DESCRIBING, ASSIGNING THE JOB

Most "job analysis" is aimed at setting up salary scales. But first we wish to know just why each position is needed. When the organization has been refined down to individual activities a series of work assignments has to be created to make clear what each person is to do.¹⁴

A position is a work assignment with the varied tasks and responsibilities one person is to cover during his full daily or weekly schedule. It needs to be defined in writing, so all concerned will know what is expected.¹⁵ The following job description defines work relationships:

Executive Stenographer

Requirement: equivalent of two years' education beyond high school; supervised by librarian; objective: to perform secretarial duties for librarian and assistant librarian, and additional overhead office duties; operations: keeps librarian's work and appointments flowing smoothly by reminders, by answering telephone and often taking care of routine questions herself. Makes appointments, receives and distributes mail that he need not answer or see. Takes his dictation and instructions and answers part of his mail. Gathers information, prepares letters, memos and reports as much as she can for librarian, including reports, agenda and budget sheets for trustees. Sees that he and others follow through on what they start. Sees that typist is given steady flow of work, with instructions therefor, such as letters, memos, reports, tables, booklists, etc., for all departments. Aided by typist she keeps library accounts, prepares checks for librarian's signature. Does stenographic work and typing for assistant librarian. As receptionist, meets visitors, and sees that each is welcomed and promptly passed on to librarian or proper department head, and that the visitor leaves with questions answered, and satisfied with his visit.

In the foregoing, the line of authority is clear, from librarian to executive stenographer, then to typist. She does stenographic work for the assistant librarian, but is answerable primarily to the librarian, an example of working for two persons where authority may be confused unless defined.

Personnel comes and goes and assignment of duties involves a constantly changing pattern. It may gratify the four-person staff of a busy library to have all four encouraged to do everything, with no specialization whatever. If one is not better fitted than the others to develop reference services, another to develop children's service, another to catalog, then the librarian needs to see that each builds himself up as soon as possible. Superior results come where each person has been assigned some special part of the work, where able department heads do not hesitate to make clear-cut assignments. It is a pleasure to find in a large city catalog department of thirty-five staff members an even work flow, a department head who spends most of her time, not on routine clerical tasks, but assigning work, supervis-

ing, encouraging and developing each assistant, making decisions on debatable class numbers and headings, and intent on promptness of new book completion, and on economy.

Professional and Nonprofessional

As far back as 1931, the California Library Association prepared a schedule of professional and nonprofessional duties by departments, a project taken over by A. L. A., revised and published in 1948.¹⁶ Even then, critics might hold that checking and supervision of several nonprofessional tasks, such as reading shelves, revising the typing of cards for fiction, assembling review materials for book selection, typing order cards from checked lists, clipping and filing publishers' circulars can be done by nonprofessionals after instruction; and such tasks are discussed in the following chapters. Mis-assigning professional and clerical work is a problem common to all types of libraries.¹⁷ Despite the California studies, persons there and in every state are still doing nonprofessional work,¹⁸ partly because in the small libraries they are forced to do so by too great a variety of work for too few workers. It is argued but not clearly proven that this will be helped by combining small libraries into larger area units; as long as readers come to small units there should be trained or at least educated and instructed persons there to help them find information. Some attempts at centralizing orders and cataloging for separately budgeted libraries overlook the added costs and delays in the local library or branch and at intermediate record points, for added paperwork to send requests and follow-through on the coming and going of the new orders, reports, invoices and materials.

Job Instructions

Repetitious and mechanical work reduces most easily to detailed instruction, whereas advising a reader as to choice of a book, its coverage and merits, is hard to translate into instructions except as to principles and viewpoints; it can hardly be measured in readers- or questions- or advice-per hour. Following is a job instruction for such an elementary task as pasting book pockets, usually done by unsupervised workers, along with labeling or marking new books:

1. Work Station. Cleared space about 2 ft. deep, 3 ft. wide, on smooth table or work counter with linoleum or other nonslick but wipeable surface; comfortable work chair.
2. Materials. Inch-wide flat brush. Paste; from large jar, but usable quantity in small dish, wet enough to stir to soft consistency, but not runny. An open jar of water to keep brush moist. Place these at right hand of operation. Piece of cardboard about 6 x 8 in., or sheets of scrap paper, on which to paste; if the former, mark an L as guide for laying successive pockets (or book plates if used)

in the same spot, to avoid smearing paste on face of new pocket; or a block of wood 1 or 2 inches thick, cut to same size as book plate and fastened to a larger cardboard under it, to let any overrun of paste gather on edges of block. Piece of cheesecloth for finishing.

3. Pasting. Books in lots of 5 or 8, piled on left side of workspace, face down (if pockets are to go in back cover). Pockets or book plates in pile of 10 or 15 face down. Being seated, take a book from pile, open back cover, where order or catalog department may have placed the book card and pocket and date due slip. Place pocket face down on the pasting surface and apply paste with as few strokes and as neatly as possible. If each pocket is carefully placed on its mark, little paste will get onto the next pocket. Paste pocket on inside back cover (or on last fly leaf) in middle of lower edge, avoiding any map or other print that readers need to see. Take care that pocket is evenly located. At same time (if library uses date slip) hold the slip in left hand and brush $\frac{1}{2}$ inch strip of paste on upper back edge, and attach it to the last fly leaf or back cover, opposite the pocket and square with the book edges. Wipe off excess paste while pressing the pocket and slip firmly into space. (We omit marking and labeling, usually done at the same time.) Add the book to finished pile, ready to carry to next work station. At end of day or of operation, clean brush and put materials away. Assembling and clearing up consume time; it is often well to leave most of the assembly untouched, if space can be spared, until the next pasting job.

The foregoing detail may enlist the worker's interest in doing the job neatly and quickly, developing a pride in it, and in finding more efficient details. But, all this may be superseded, in libraries of 15,000 population and upward, by a pasting machine. Some libraries having a machine neglect to minimize the handling of books before and after pasting.

WORKROOMS

Adequate work quarters have minimum noise and confusion, good lighting and bright, attractive, efficiently arranged furniture. Recent studies show that excessive sharp noise and overheard conversation cut production among clerical workers and executives. Noiseless typewriters, muffled phones, sound-absorbent ceilings and walls, including folded wall drapes, screening noisy equipment by absorbent end and back panels—these all help. Some extra-noisy equipment may have to be placed in adjoining space, resulting in time loss. Plastic foam absorbent tile and rolls are now available.

Lighting

Good lighting is not easily attained. The basic aim is even diffusion and absence of glare from spots of light. One room equipped with ingeniously designed desk and table lamps which conflict with the idea of good diffu-

sion was transformed by replacing these with softly diffused light from fixtures close to and reflecting from the ceiling. Advertisements of some fixtures show the light source so placed that the reflection from reading matter, paperwork and table or desk tops bounces directly into the worker's eyes, such as carrels with fluorescent light tube under the shelf in front of the reader.¹⁰ Electric lighting should come from nearly white ceilings or high surfaces, and be diffused over the work surface. All-over translucent ceilings with the outlets, lamps and service piping installed above the corrugated suspended ceiling are highly satisfactory. Large diffusing grids, or large, shallow plastic bowls, maybe five or six feet square, shielding fluorescent tubes, are efficient and less costly. Some ingenious and otherwise beautiful fixture designs directly conflict with good lighting. In most workrooms the single central ceiling outlet or fixture provides little diffusion and leaves the corners dark. Inexpensive upward-aimed standards can be set on bookcases or attached to the walls, to throw the light at ceiling corners, thence diffused on work surfaces.

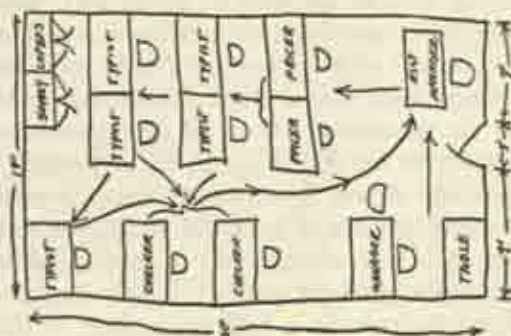
There has been a steady rise in the number of foot candles considered adequate. Recent studies call for at least 50 foot candles, some say 60, even 75, for paperwork desks and counters, and 60 to 100 for close work like mimeographing or multigraph setting. Enthusiasts for various wall colors may overlook significant differences in color reflection; some tints and shades which seem to be fairly reflective may kill off 15 to 25 per cent of the light. The nearer to white, especially in ceilings, the better is the reflection of daylight and electric light. Floors should reflect 20 to 30 per cent, ceilings 80 to 90 per cent, that is, be as nearly white as possible, walls 70 to 80 per cent. Dark desk tops and work surfaces cause eye fatigue from too great contrast. Architects and decorators working up impressive dark and light wall contrasts have to be restrained in favor of bright, sunny rooms; lighter tints of all colors are preferable and save electric current. The larger paint makers maintain free advisory services and publish color guides.

Furniture Arrangement

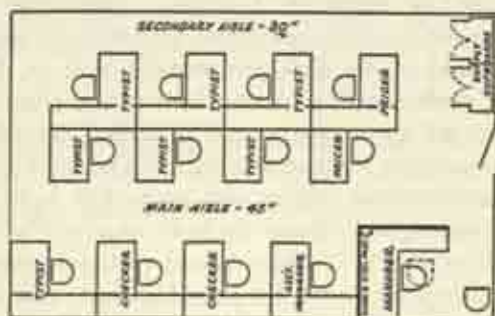
To lay out a workroom, do not limit the thinking to the department head, but have all the staff, especially newer workers, study not the present arrangement but what should be the logical sequence, to minimize steps and the movement of materials, and to group related operations as closely as possible. Make a dotted line for the steps that each worker will take, and another for the movement of materials. Try diagrams of various layouts to attain continuous streamlined progression of work and avoid backtracking. Keep each stage of the work close to the next stage, and related operations near each other, preferring a strip along the windows but usually leaving an

aisle between desks and windows. Place storage shelving and files against inside walls, if that will not increase travel. Keep the whole space open and undivided; even low screens are seldom needed around desks. Confidential interviews can be held somewhere else in the building. Forgo barriers that create an obstruction in free flow of work. To cut travel time, each workroom, unless it adjoins a washroom, should have a one-piece washbowl, with a four- or five-inch flat flange on both ends on which to lay materials (not an expensive sink recessed in a bench of other material).

freehand sketch of present arrangement



scaled drawing of Techniplan arrangement



Before and after arranging furniture for better work flow and more desk space. (From *Techniplan*, 1959. Courtesy of Globe-Wernicke Co.)

The Work Station

This term refers to the desk, counter space or other surface at which each worker generally sits and carries on his major assigned work. The most common work station is the office desk, partly because it is purchasable ready made with needed accessories included. The former usual depth,

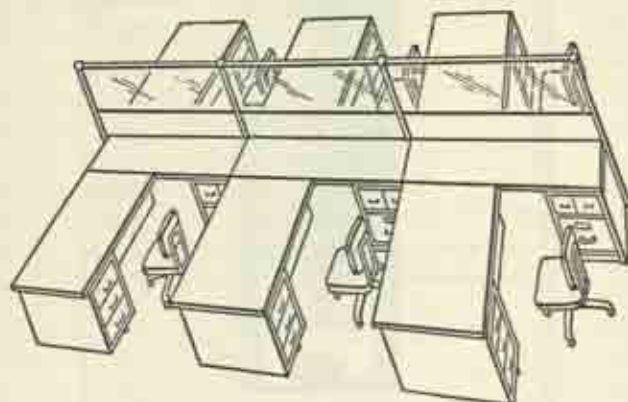
34 in. or more in groups, generally wastes floor space, and the 30 in. depth is now in favor, with 48 or 54 in. instead of 60 in. length. This depth permits spacing desks 32 to 36 in. apart for easier access. But desks can now be had in almost any size. A 30 by 40 in. desk and a chair take 18.2 sq. ft. but if the desk is 60 in. long they take 27.5 sq. ft. Most modern desks are adjustable from 29 in. (usual) to 30½ in. height. Desks should not face each other but should face in one direction and not toward the light, preferably with daylight coming from the left.

One person may do two quite different jobs, such as charging books at loan desk, then moving to a typewriter to type overdues, or to the catalog, where the operation requires an array of books and "tools." It is often better to leave the work spread out to save time in picking up and then laying it out again; several work stations need to be provided, each suitably laid out and reached with fewest steps. Conflicting formulas could be cited for space needs: secretaries, 100 sq. ft.; department heads, 150 sq. ft.; vertical file and space to use it, 7.5 sq. ft. In high-rental offices and old crowded libraries these figures have shrunk and everyone survives, but most library departments need at least 100 sq. ft. per station because so much material has to be laid out, especially in catalog and reference rooms. In mechanical work like marking, pasting, rubber stamping, etc., arrange materials in pickup sequence in a half circle close to the worker, some perhaps suspended on a spring cord to pull down and use or to pull back out of the way on the bench.

The "Techniplan" or "modular" L-shaped combination of smaller desk plus work counter or machine platform, generally 18 in. deep, at right angles to the left end of the desk, and usually 26½ in. for a typewriter, doubles the work surface with a quarter turn of the chair. New low movable screens can be set up to give privacy, if needed. Consider simple work counters 24 to 30 in. deep, built in against walls and cut to fit odd lengths and irregular spaces around piping and posts. Of 3-ply, with linoleum pasted on and a binding strip along the front, they utilize space otherwise lost and cost half as much as desks. Wood pedestals with three or four drawers are also inexpensive, can be placed to suit, and can support the work tops. Long work counters like this, with 3 or 4 ft. space allotments and pedestals, with a shelf on the wall above, are especially good for mending, etc., but also for constricted public departmental workrooms. A short work counter or table on wheels is useful; the setup for some operation can be moved to suit. Place materials and accessories most often used closest to the point of use, to be reached without rising. For new or old workrooms the references at the end of this chapter provide ideas. In smaller libraries with limited funds home-made substitutes for items in glamour-color catalogs can be made by a local carpenter or home woodworker or school shop instructor.

SIMPLIFYING WORK

If all the libraries in the country could eliminate, simplify and streamline their daily routine to the minimum in each department, it would probably save some millions of dollars in time-salary costs. Work simplifying deserves attention every day. It means constant awareness and attempts to prevent, abolish and reduce records and paperwork; rearranging, combining and streamlining what cannot be got rid of; getting the essential



Solid or glass screens give workers some privacy though close together, with extra work shelf at right angles. (From *Techniplan*, 1959. Courtesy of Globe-Wernicke Co.)

things done with the minimum of processes and records, handling, motions and moving of materials. It may mean adopting or creating mechanical devices to replace handling.

Staff Participation

Many assistants, especially new skeptical ones with imagination and resourcefulness, are able to think in terms of self-analysis and change IF their ideas are invited and welcomed. Good department heads are leaders in seeking new methods; they welcome, consider and discuss suggestions. No simplification program can succeed without full participation of the staff, looking upon it as a game with a worthwhile goal. It is well to have each worker make out his own process chart, then to discuss these (and each succeeding step) in group meetings including clerical workers. Simplification is best handled in one department at a time, beginning where it seems especially needed, with staff discussions every few days as

the study progresses.²⁰ For example, the head librarian's desk in one city is fifty feet from a table where her trained branch librarians come in every few days; each takes a hand drill and drills three or four holes through current magazines to fasten on a heavier cover so they can circulate. But the librarian is oblivious of this bad work assignment, the failure to centralize



(By permission of Time Magazine.)

when branch librarians are so busy, the needless time cost in this method of reinforcing and the resulting sense of futility by the staff.

Encourage ideas that seem a bit novel: many deserve an affirmative try; there is generally more than one solution and no magic formula. Most jobs have three major stages: the preparation or "make-ready," when materials are laid out; then the actual operation, the "do"; and then the cleaning up or "put-away." Make-ready and put-away may consume far more time than the "do." Often they can be cut down and combined; sometimes the materials are profitably left laid out, if space permits, as on a work board that can be lifted and left on a high shelf or brackets until the next time the operation is resumed.

A brief summary of earlier studies in several libraries may be found elsewhere.¹¹ A one-page instruction issued by the Training Within Industry Program of the War Manpower Commission, which effectively speeded up production in World War II, is here modified for library use:

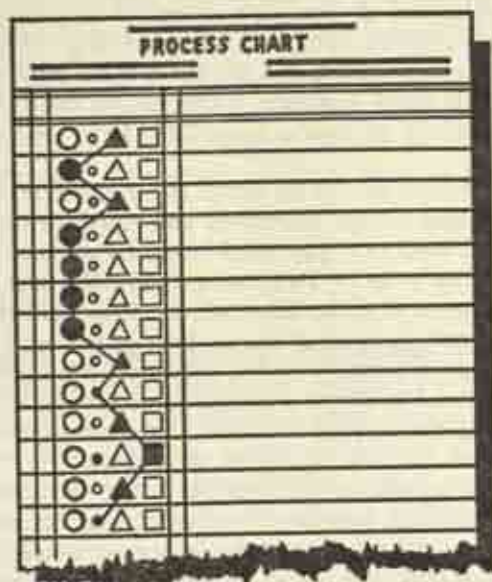
IMPROVING JOB METHODS

Step I. Break down the job

1. List all the details of the job exactly as done by *present methods*.

2. Be sure details include all material handling, and movement from one point to another, decisions that affect the flow of work (shown as "operations"), work (such as typewriting) and hand work.

Save time and oversights by using regular purchasable printed process or work-analysis forms, or mimeograph some, using the following symbols. (There are variations in these symbols among various authorities.)²¹



From *Work Simplification*²¹ (by courtesy of Public Administrative Service, Chicago).

The large circle means any "operation," for example, something being done, changed, created or added to, like typing, filling in, pasting, cataloging, filing or looking up information. The small circle (sometimes an arrow is used) means moving something from one place to another. The triangle means waiting at some point, for further action, or storage. How long is the delay? The square means something checked, *inspected*, verified, such as proofreading or inspecting entries on a catalog card.

It is essential to identify every step, and to write a one-line definition of that step, and to connect the correct symbol in each line with the correct symbol in the next line. Doing this while studying each step will help one discover every detail.²²

Step II. Question every detail

Why is it necessary? See if other libraries haven't discontinued it; for example, perforating a mark of ownership (rubber stamp on edge of book is

quicker, inerasable and more effective). Do not start any new record, paper form or procedure, unless to simplify or combine present ones, without estimating objectively the cost in future continuing paperwork.

WHAT is its purpose? One library started to keep a record to see if a new piece of equipment paid for itself; it was still being kept three years later when the proof was clear in three weeks.

WHERE should it be done? This question is usually overlooked. For example: placing typists, pasters and markers close enough to the individual new books or small piles of them coming from the hands of cataloger-classifiers and typists so that no book trucks are needed, and the books move from person to person.

WHEN should it be done? Example: taking catalog department statistics so as not to delay books even an hour or cause them to be moved to some counting point.

WHO is best qualified to do it? This means also at the least cost. By analyzing the work and separating out the elementary and repetitive steps, these can be learned, handled and much of it supervised by clerical workers.

How is the best way to do it? This means finding the new, simpler, streamlined route, the minimum of things left to do, the promptest way to get through at the least cost of time, in terms of the per-hour pay of each person involved. A large library thought it economy to buy unfolded book pockets: each pocket had to be folded by hand as used, a demeaning task because evidently senseless, probably quadrupling the cost-per-thousand. Carbon copies of few letters, or other overhead records, need be kept after six months.

Have a priority for operations, the essentials first, a daily, weekly or monthly schedule of what's required. Low-priority jobs that languish can often be delegated and cleaned up. All this means that someone, usually the department head, has to plan the work, just where the job is to be handled and by whom, what supplies and instructions are needed, keeping an eye on how it goes. Within a year some factor or need will have changed, and the carefully arrived-at new method may need another shakeup.

Step III. Develop the new method

1. Eliminate unnecessary details; 2. combine details when practical; 3. rearrange for better sequence; 4. simplify all necessary details: pre-position materials, tools and equipment at the best places in the proper work area; use devices to move a number of books from here to there with least travel; use some sort of fasteners, instead of hands, for holding work; 5. work out your ideas with others; 6. write up your proposed new method.

Step IV. Apply the new method

1. Sell your proposal to the boss; 2. sell the new method to the operators; 3. get final approval of all concerned on safety, quality, quantity, cost; 4. put the new method to work and use it until a better way is developed; 5. give credit where credit is due.

Step V. Measure the Result

When a task has been simplified, the benefit may be obvious. The time used to measure just how great the improvement is, often is better spent in improvement elsewhere. For if it needs to be measured, there must have been a measurement before the change, as well as after. Measuring involves quantity, quality and cost. Production, such as books charged, letters typed, cards filed can be recorded for three or four brief sample periods. Quality must be defined and then either counted, as for typing and filing errors, or rated, as for cataloging and book processing, or floor cleaning, for a few sample periods. Costs need only involve direct labor (staff time expressed in hourly pay) and possibly the materials if they involve much difference in cost. Comparing the old method and the new under otherwise comparable conditions, one then will have something more definite than a conviction as to how much of an improvement has been made.

Mechanical Devices

Lengthy discussion of the merits and applications of mechanized time-saving devices is hardly profitable here, because (1) the great variety of gadgets to accomplish scores of objectives grows each month; (2) pros and cons, and any recommendations, are soon outdated; (3) a library should scan the field for latest ideas and possibilities, sifting these to the few most applicable locally; and (d) nationally, library objectives change year by year. For example, cataloging of new books may be done centrally with cards sent out with the books or by "cataloging-in-source" when it becomes possible (as is inevitable) to have the data appear in the new books themselves: this means more clerical employees and fewer professionals, aided by some not yet available duplicator able to make as few as two or three copies on standard catalog cards from the master card, more cheaply than by typing them.

The typewriter, telephone, dictating machine, pasting machine, adding machine, electric eraser, Xerox and other dry-print copiers²³ are obvious major time savers. But there are scores of other useful devices.²⁴ Small libraries that cannot afford a new typewriter will find satisfactory rebuilt at \$40 or \$50. Typewriters make possible the use of time-saving multiple book order forms, described in Chapter 28. Hundreds of libraries not wishing to pay rental for inside stations of the Bell system can more cheaply buy and install one-, two- or three-station independent equipment, at \$75 or \$100. Larger libraries will save substantially on tolls by installing an automatic independent telephone equipment with a station in each department. Several inside stations can talk together simultaneously. This gives free service between inside points such as the loan desk and a children's room or office upstairs or down. But its great advantage is to free and not

tie up the outside phone; it does not go through a switchboard. It also makes it possible for the person receiving an outside call, for instance at the reference desk, to pick up the inside phone, ask a question of another department and give the information to the outside inquirer. Rentals for several Bell stations frequently called from outside make a sizable budget item. New inside Bell switching devices on each receiver make three- or four-cornered conversations possible, an improvement worth considering by larger libraries for reference desks where elusive information has to be sought from several departments. But this still blocks incoming calls on the Bell stations, and an inside system provides also for several stations to talk together and still saves greatly on both time and money. The Baltimore library's P.A.X. inside system, with 125 stations, averages 633 calls per day for 5 days, 421 on Saturdays, a 1959 total of 251,304, with no rentals and a yearly maintenance costs of \$172.25.²⁸

There are three major types of copying machines: (a) dry-print; (b) wet-print devices, to reproduce one or more copies of single sheets and pages, or pages of books and magazines up to 15 by 18 inches, more cheaply than by photostat; and (c) machines to duplicate many copies or as few as two or three copies, of catalog and index cards, in less time than by typing. Note that in figuring time savings one must include the time to get master copy to, through and returned from the duplicator. Very often it is quicker for the typist to type two or three cards than to bother with getting them to a machine and back, for the book in process has also to be handled twice if the cards are not at hand. Libraries of 25,000 population and up need an adding machine for accounts and statistics. Smaller libraries can take their monthly figures to an accommodating neighboring store or office and run them through the machine there. We have discussed the economy of dictating machines in Chapter 5; here again guaranteed second-hand units may be picked up at half price and if carefully used will last for years.

Evaluating Automatic Equipment

We do not go into "automation," a term especially applied to electronic calculating and information retrieval machines, which as yet are profitable only in a few very large libraries. The ordinary library has few repetitious operations of this extent. A 1956 survey of office costs reports that two-thirds of 138 companies "said that methods improvement rather than mechanization, was the most successful step taken to reduce costs."²⁹ When the time comes, the high costs involved will require that a library make a complete review of the needs, the available alternatives, the initial investment and the annual cost to operate and maintain the equipment, in terms of salary as well as purchase price. Committees of A. L. A. and the Association of College and Research Libraries are studying these machines, and

the Library of Congress is making a large-scale tryout; information about developments is cleared through A. L. A.'s Library Technology Project.

Psychological Factors

One must be impressed by the discrepant decisions made on equipment bought to meet the same need in a series of libraries, e.g., to duplicate catalog cards; to charge and discharge books and count circulation; or to keep accounts, sometimes including overelaborate or overexact figures of expenditures per branch for books and other items. Psychological factors play a part:

1. The belief that a machine will certainly save considerable time, whereas its use may be so limited that the investment and operating salary cost will not be repaid for a number of years. 2. The argument that the machine in question will, without added cost, give additional data which seem impressive, but which no one had previously thought essential, and they aren't. 3. The salesman who, without studying the chain of detailed library operations, sells a device which may be indispensable in a big-volume, large-money, repetitive commercial situation, but which goes beyond the ordinary library's simpler need. One salesman can persuade a large number of libraries to his company's product, while in a distant area another salesman has equal success with another device. 4. When the purchaser begins to understand the mechanical operation, he feels gratified and predisposed to the machine he understands, but another librarian or department head for the same reason plumps for another machine, even where seemingly objective comparative tests in several libraries are made simultaneously on several machines and the output and quality is tabulated "scientifically."

In many cases time factors have been overlooked, such as getting materials to and from the machine. It seems essential, first to be thoroughly convinced that an expensive machine is needed, then to try out whatever candidate equipment can be discovered, to discount the salesman except as instructor for the tryout, and to list all the pros and cons of two or three competing devices, including figures as to output divided by operating time cost, before making a decision.

An essay could be written on the psychology of book trucks. Everyone wants one and feels that things are moving if a \$75 book truck stands beside his desk. In catalog departments many of these trucks actually never move; they do not hurry the books forward, because seldom does or should a truckful accumulate, and if it did the majority of the books would be delayed. The flow is faster if small piles of books go from one desk to the next. A little board or "pallet" about 10 by 16 inches, with cleats under the ends, is an easily lifted carrier for fifteen or twenty books, in two piles, to be taken to the next work point.

WORK MEASUREMENT AND STANDARDS

Work measurement is receiving more attention, partly because performance budgeting is currently in vogue in some large libraries and librarians are called on for quantitative measures of performance and costs. Measurement should involve analysis of the various processes and therefore should aid, but it seldom does, in the work simplification which really saves money and which should be its major goal.²⁷ To date, attempts to measure time and salary costs per unit of output have failed to evolve any realistic comparable cost standards. But short simple studies on some special operation are often enlightening and spotlight the need for further study and simplifying. The measurement study by Pierce, concluding that two-thirds of a typical staff could be clerical, suffered from the excessive detail it gave to secondary operations and from its lack of understanding of the individually reader-fitted types of informational service which a good library should give.²⁸ Neff pointed out weaknesses of the Pierce study, which has had the general effect of encouraging libraries not to build up their professional staffs to do justice to professional services. Some practical difficulties in trying to follow Pierce's impressive studies are reported from Urbana.²⁹

As a preface to desirable but costly work measurement studies, an extensive well-planned method study is badly needed. Results will be negligible until (a) at least a dozen libraries in each of the ten or twelve size categories suggested in Chapter 8 are used as testing grounds for efficient methods; (b) the studies are made by persons thoroughly enough acquainted with high-class reader-service to be able to weigh arguments for the necessity of each present record, process and position; (c) it is realized that a "cost unit" in terms of x cents per book charged, or book cataloged, etc., means nothing unless the work requirements and conditions are clearly and fully described, and made fairly similar in the libraries studied; and (d) the objective is not merely measurement, but first to achieve simplification and an economical operation worthy of being measured. A foundation grant for this would give every library a pattern or standard of simplicity and economy by which to modify its own methods.

FOOTNOTES AND SPECIAL MATERIAL

Except for a few brief general summaries, we have as yet no substantial study of library workroom layout and facilities, nor of library job organization, work methods or their simplification, nor valid study of comparable work outputs and measurements. One must adapt from material intended for business and industrial situations.

1. Ralph B. Shaw, ed. *Scientific Management in Libraries*, *Library Trends*, v. 2, no. 3, Jan. 1954, p. 359-483. Includes Herbert Goldhor on "Scientific Management in Public Libraries," 22 p.; Richard Logsdon on "Time and Motion Studies," 18 p.; Paul Howard on "Consequences of Management Surveys," 11 p.

2. Joseph L. Wheeler and A. M. Githens. *The American Public Library Building*. 1941. Chapter 18. "Offices and Workrooms," p. 163-187. Intended to stimulate further studies, but still helpful, with many diagrams and details.

3. Beryl Robichaud. *Selecting, Planning and Managing Office Space*. 361 p. 1958. McGraw-Hill. \$8.50. One of several extensive treatises, has many details usable in larger libraries.

4. A few advertising-informational brochures of office equipment companies and associations are full of specific practical details. *How to Plan Your Office Layout*. 61 p. double column. 1955. \$1. National Stationery and Office Equipment Association. 740 Investment Bldg. Washington 5, D. C. Also *Functional Office Planning*. 36 p. 1960, and *Techniplan*. 74 p. 1959. Globe-Wernicke Co., Cincinnati 12, O. The latter covers desk layouts with enlarged work areas, screens, etc. to conserve space. Also *Office Planning and Layout*, revised ed. 32 p. 1960. Wood Office Furniture Institute. 1414 Eye St., Washington. \$1.00 with other brochures on office lighting, sound, color. Also *Office Standards and Planning* . . . [to save] Time, Energy, Space. 82 p. 12 ed. 1958. Art Metal Construction Co., Jamestown, N. Y.

5. National Office Management Association. *Manual of Practical Office Short Cuts*. 272 p. 1947. McGraw-Hill. \$6.50. Also its successor *Practical Office Timesavers*. 305 p. 1957. \$6. Many ideas on work stations, simplification and equipment gadgets can be adapted from items described.

6. Annual "Office Method and Equipment" issues of *Dun's Review and Modern Industry*, and of *Office Executive*, the latter based on exhibits at national business shows, sponsored by the National Office Management Association. NOMA issues *Bibliography for Office Management* each June in its monthly *Office Executive* magazine, listing and annotating about 300 books and magazine articles on subjects covered in the present chapter and chapter 31. Reprints, \$2. (NOMA address is 1927 Old York Road, Willow Grove, Pa.)

7. *Work Simplification* . . . 49 p. 1945. Publication 91. Public Administration Service, 1313 E. 60th St., Chicago 37. \$1.00. Perhaps the most useful guide to new methods in everyday situations.

8. Clifford M. Baumbach. *Systematic Work Simplification*. 57 p. 1960. Bureau of Business Research, University of Oklahoma. \$1.50. Based on factory situations but can be translated into library terms.

9. Gerald Nadler. *Work Simplification*. 292 p. 1957. McGraw-Hill. \$6.50. We have found no detailed account of actual simplification in any library procedures, except Jewel Handkopf's 1949 unpublished Columbia Univ. Library School thesis on processing methods in New York Public Library.

10. Guy C. Close, Jr. *Work Improvement*. 388 p. 1960. Wiley. \$7.75. Intended to apply to offices, service organizations and industry.

11. Joseph L. Wheeler. "Work Simplification in Libraries." *Public Libraries*. 6: 14-18+. April 1952. Also "Streamlining Technical Processes in Small Libraries." *Wilson Library Bulletin*. 28: 422-424. Jan. 1954.

12. Ralph R. Shaw. "Scientific Management in the Library." *Wilson Library Bulletin*. 21: 349-352. Jan. 1947. A good summary of results in some large libraries.

13. Arthur H. Gager. "The Dollar Stretcher—Simplification." *Wilson Library Bulletin*. 29: 383-385. January 1955.

14. Darrel H. Voorhies. (Standard Oil.) "Job Analysis is Organization's Tool." *Library Journal*. 72: 1737+. Dec. 15, 1947 and 73: 33-35. Jan. 1, 1948.

15. *Position Classification as an Aid to Supervision*. 14 p. U. S. Civil Service Commission. Feb. 1945. Full of definite instructions on job description of a practical sort.

16. *Handbook and Proceedings* . . . California Library Association. 1932. p. 58-60. Also A. L. A. Personnel Administration Board. *Descriptive List of Professional and*

Non-professional Duties 1948. See also note 28 for W. O. Pierce at the end of this chapter.

17. Edwin E. Williams "Who Does What: Unprofessional Personnel Policies." *College & Research Libraries*. 6: 301-310. Sept. 1945.

18. *News Notes of California Libraries*. 54: 244. Summer 1959.

19. See illustration in *Library Journal*. 81: 34. Jan. 1, 1956.

20. F. W. Stein. "How We Get Workers to Think About Ways to Cut Costs." *Factory Management & Maintenance*. 107: 92-94. March, 1949. See also: Edward C. Heintz. "Industrial Training Applied to Libraries." *Wilson Library Bulletin*. 21: 353-357. Jan. 1947.

21. Sample from *Work Simplification*. See note 7 above.

22. *A Supervisor's Guide for Work Improvement*. 14 p. 1960. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Division of Management Research. Lists several films available for instruction. Also the supplement: *Flow Process Chart: a Tool for Supervisors*. 7 p. of instructions with "before and after" charts, filled out. Also the 6-p. list of *Films and Filmstrips for Business and Industry*. 1961. Enoch Pratt Free Library. Includes clerical work simplification. A work simplification package is available from Remington, Rand, Inc., including 500 work sheets, instructions for analysis and a *Simplification Manual*, for \$12.50.

23. Giles F. Shepherd, Jr. "Developments in Copying Methods." *Library Resources and Technical Services*. 4: 116-125. Spring 1960.

24. Arnold H. Trotter, ed. *Mechanization in Libraries*. *Library Trends*. 5: No. 2, p. 191-308. Oct. 1956. A valuable survey of the whole field, including charging machines, communications, copying, office machines, gadgets, etc.

25. Carl J. Parker, Building Superintendent. Letter Jan. 6, 1960.

26. Lydia Strong. "Cutting the Costs of Paperwork . . ." *Management Review*. 45: 1061-1071. Dec. 1956.

27. Elmer V. Grillo and C. G. Berg. *Work Measurement in the Office: Guide to Clerical Cost Control*. 186 p. 1959. McGraw-Hill. \$5.75.

28. Watson O'D. Pierce. *Work Measurement in Public Libraries*. 238 p. mimeo. Social Science Research Council. N. Y. 1949. \$2. Discussion of the Pierce study by Judson Neff, in p. 80-86 of Lester Asheim, ed. *A Forum on the Public Library Inquiry*. 1950. 281 p. 1950. Columbia Univ. Press. \$3.75. Also San Diego City Library, and Office of Administrative Management. *Library Service and Performance Standards* . . . 128 p. mimeo. 1956. San Diego Public Library.

29. Kathryn Oller. "A Time Study of the Urbana, Illinois, Free Library." Univ. of Illinois Library School. *Occasional Papers*. No. 16. 11 p. Nov. 1950. This study produced a classified schedule of activities, with time measures, but nothing by which to ascertain whether these time units were reasonable or economical.

CHAPTER 12

The Organization for Personnel Administration

Personnel administration is concerned with finding the best available people to do the jobs which are deemed necessary, and then with helping them make their maximum contribution to the library service program. Because ability and devotion of the staff largely determine the success of that program, personnel work is highly important to the library, to each employee and to the public. It involves many unexpected problems and questions, for which definitive answers are not possible, since circumstances are always changing. We attempt only to summarize the major relevant considerations and actual experience, including that from business, industry and government, and to present recommendations in the light of current conditions.¹⁻⁸

The high percentage of public library expenditures devoted to salaries, the steady increase over the years in the number of public library employees, an expanding economy and the demand for more educated and trained personnel in every field make library personnel problems acute in the 1960's.⁹ The A. L. A. standards of 1956 recommended that two-thirds of total public library expenditures go for salaries (other than for janitors), and data on current actual expenditures agree. Anything which can improve the utilization of the personal services so secured by public libraries is important. It is an old saying that the building may represent 5 per cent of successful library service, and the book collection 20 per cent, but staff represents 75 per cent of what it takes to make a good library.

NUMBER AND TYPES OF LIBRARY EMPLOYEES

The need for more thorough and more careful personnel policies and methods increases directly with the number of employees. At the minimum there is the one-member staff, while the public libraries of New York and

Chicago have over a thousand employees each. In 1956, the U. S. Office of Education reports,¹⁰ there were 51,903 persons employed in 6,263 American public libraries, but almost half were in the 184 libraries of over 100,000 population, for an average of 132 staff members per library. The long-term trend of public library employment is decidedly up, judging from the summary in Table 12-1 of the U. S. Office of Education reports, and the proportion of salaries out of total expenditures has also increased.

TABLE 12-1. Number of Public Library Employees in Selected Years.

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)
			Number	of	Employees
Year	No. of public libraries	Professional	Clerical and sub-professional	Custodial	Total
1939	5,798	29,063 (84%)		5,439 (16%)	34,502 (100%)
1945	6,026	13,819 (37%)	18,208 (49%)	5,355 (14%)	37,382 (100%)
1950	6,028	14,817 (33%)	23,839 (54%)	5,769 (13%)	44,415 (100%)
1956	6,263	17,417 (33%)	28,438 (55%)	6,048 (12%)	51,903 (100%)

Sources: *Public Library Statistics: 1938/39* (U. S. Office of Education Bulletin 1942, No. 4; 1942) p. 6-7. *Public Library Statistics: 1944/45* (U. S. Office of Education Bulletin 1947, No. 12; GPO, 1947), p. 16. *Public Library Statistics: 1950* (U. S. Office of Education Bulletin 1953, No. 9; GPO, 1954) p. 17. Rose Vainstein, *Statistics of Public Libraries: 1955-56* (U. S. Office of Education Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1954-56, Chapter 5; GPO, 1959) p. 86.

One-third of these 51,903 public library employees in 1956 were professional librarians, i.e., they performed duties which require the knowledge and skill usually acquired by completion of a college and library school course of study. In 1961 the 42 largest public libraries had 36 per cent professionals and sub-professionals.¹¹

Clerical and sub-professional employees (viz., those who perform tasks which are found in any kind of office work or which are peculiar to libraries but do not require the knowledge or skill of a professional librarian) accounted for 55 per cent of all public library employees in 1956. And custodial or building maintenance employees were another 12 per cent; in 1961 the 42 large cities showed an average of 9 per cent.¹¹ Some libraries have a sub-professional grouping, but usually this is a confusing term; almost all such sub-professional positions are properly clerical rather than professional,¹² and it might therefore be desirable to use some such phrase as "library aides," instead of clerical employees. In larger libraries, more groupings of positions and employees are needed (especially for those persons of special training in professions other than librarianship); but in

general the three main divisions—professional, library aides and custodial—are enough.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

Individuals each have their own special backgrounds, abilities, interests and personalities. A staff of outstanding persons, with notable leadership and morale, can work wonders under conditions and with materials that would floor the weak-hearted, the mediocre and the uninterested who may so easily creep into any library. The responsibility for securing an outstanding staff is squarely that of the chief librarian. No matter how he delegates various aspects of personnel administration, he is the one person finally answerable to the trustees for the quality of the staff, its progress and development, its morale, its fair treatment and reward, its happy interrelationships, and the esteem in which it is held by readers and by the community at large. Local government officials in particular need to be better informed than they are at present on the personnel situation of the library and on the qualifications and duties of the professional staff. How well this has or has not been done is reflected in whether the library is included in local government employee welfare programs, fringe benefits and across-the-board pay raises.

Role of the Library Board

In personnel administration it is peculiarly true that the board should restrict itself to general policies and not concern itself with their specific applications or with specific positions or persons, other than the choice of the chief librarian. Policy statements should be adopted by the trustees on recommendation of the chief librarian, after consultation by him with his colleagues, on such topics as eligibility for employment of relatives of present staff or board members, the salary schedule and the position classification plan (and the rules for their use and application), sick leave, paid vacations, holidays, the employment of substitute or temporary staff, promotions, retirement, leave of absence and many others.¹⁸ Such general policy statements free the librarian from the need of securing a decision in each individual case. It is desirable to give him reasonable discretion in applying the policy to individual cases, and to provide for possible exceptions (e.g., by their being reported as such, or at least upon specific approval in each case by the board).

Another board function is to protect the librarian from pressure for the appointment of poorly qualified persons who may have political connections, or who present claims unrelated to merit. Individual trustees usually refrain from recommending persons for employment. If a trustee proposes

an applicant, he should be accorded the courtesy of consideration; and in times of labor shortage conscientious trustees may be helpful in finding good clerical and building staff. When an inferior candidate is recommended by a trustee, the latter will feel he has done his part by having made the introduction, and will not press for an undesirable appointment. If he perseveres and the matter comes up to the board, and if the board as a whole directs or requests the appointment, promotion or separation of a specific individual without or against the recommendation of the chief librarian, it is likely to be a clear case of board interference in internal management and of lack of confidence in the administrator. In several such cases good librarians have resigned rather than submit to pressure they think is harmful to the library.

Usually the appointment of a new staff member is legal and official only when approved by the board of trustees, since by law the board is the library. In practice many new employees have begun work and even received their first salary check before the meeting of the board at which their appointment is proposed. In such a case the administrator should inform the board or at least its president, in advance of appointments to key positions. The post of assistant chief librarian, for example, is of obvious concern to the board. Similarly it is usually required and desirable that promotions be approved by or least reported to the board. The natural desire on the part of the librarian to steer his board away from internal management should not lead him to withhold information from the trustees, either as to what is planned or what has been done by way of personnel actions; they as well as the librarian have to be prepared to justify these decisions in the face of possible criticism. These actions can be summarized briefly in the written agenda for each board meeting.

Role of the Librarian

Subject to the general policies so established by the trustees, the librarian in public libraries other than the largest typically is and desirably should be the person chiefly responsible for personnel administration. The McDiarmids found this to be so in 86 per cent of the 212 libraries in cities of over 30,000 population.¹⁴ The smaller the library, the more nearly will the librarian perform all the functions discussed below or give them his immediate supervision. The larger the library, the less he will be able to do himself, and the more nearly he must restrict himself to key appointments, major policies, general goals and overall supervision. Since typically appointments of new staff members are made by the board on the recommendation of the chief librarian,¹⁵ he would do well in as many cases as possible to make those recommendations only after he has clear and adequate ground for the exercise of his best judgment, including personal interviews with the candidates, a review of the information available on each and the

opinions of those other selected members of the library staff who have interviewed them. Even in large libraries the responsibility for making the final decision on selection of a new employee should be delegated only to those supervisors in whose judgment the chief has confidence, and it is well for him to examine the papers and to retain a veto before the final appointment is made. Not for nothing is it said that an institution is the lengthened shadow of a man.

General personnel policies, such as were discussed above as the main contribution of the trustees to personnel administration, may be drafted or even initiated by others, e.g., staff committees, but are submitted to the board only with the approval of the librarian. Specific personnel policies are often avoided by boards and remain a matter of tradition or oral agreement. Even more common, formal acceptance or specific consideration has not usually been given to broader and more general policies, such as the principle of merit, democratic administration, the improvement of working conditions and the development of individual staff members. On these general objectives the librarian can get many things clarified if he will consider and formulate a clear and practical statement.¹⁶ No such policy statement will be enforced and applied up and down the line unless it is clear that it has the support of the librarian and that he will not countenance violations.

The librarian will delegate as much as possible of the detail and preliminary steps, but he will keep adequate supervision over them to get the best results. Personnel work demands good judgment. This applies nowhere more than in deciding whether and to whom the crucial aspects of the personnel function shall be delegated, e.g., in choosing those to screen applicants and select the best for appointment. The formal tools of supervision are applicable here, such as reports, compilation and analysis of meaningful statistics, screening of top applicants by department head committees, regular meetings for the review of current progress and problems, etc. The chief librarian is paid in large part for proper supervision of the rest of the staff, and to a lesser degree for his technical knowledge and ability. It is unlikely that a library staff will be improving in competence and performance in the face of poor personnel administration. If it is obviously on the downgrade, a likely cause is the organization for personnel administration and specifically the unwise delegation of that function to others.

Role of the Assistant Librarian

The usual persons to whom a librarian will delegate any major part of his authority in personnel administration are (a) the assistant librarian, and the department heads and other supervisors; and (b) a specifically designated personnel officer. The delegation of a considerable part of the

personnel job to the general manager type of assistant librarian, in addition to other duties, is a normal development as a given library grows in size and the chief administrator needs help. Frequently the assistant librarian takes over the personnel records and the application of policy to nonprofessional personnel, and does the preliminary work leading to the decisions which the librarian must make. He will thereby develop his own ability to evaluate candidates. In 10 per cent of the 212 public libraries surveyed by the McDiarmids,¹⁷ the assistant librarian served in this fashion. At the same time in the growth of the library or even earlier, the heads of the large departments and branches will tend to become involved in the personnel function, by formulating policies, interviewing candidates, recommending action, etc. The necessity for the librarian to retain the major voice in personnel matters does not conflict with the desirability of having the time-consuming preliminary work done for him by others; the top supervisors in the library are thereby strengthened and developed in their role as managers.

Role of the Personnel Officer

More difficult questions appear when the library grows to such a size that a special personnel officer is needed. The McDiarmids recommend this for a library of about 150 staff members.¹⁸ The 1956 A. L. A. standards suggest 75 as the cutting point,¹⁹ but general surveys have shown the average ratio is one full-time personnel worker for every 125 employees.²⁰ For government agencies alone, the median ratio is one personnel worker for every 143 employees; for all firms with less than 500 employees each the ratio is one to 109 employees. A public library with 125 or more employees is likely to benefit from the investment in a full-time personnel officer, especially with the present turnover rate.

At just what level a personnel officer is appointed is less important than what he is assigned to do.²¹ Even in a library with a staff of twenty-five, the paper routines performed in selecting new employees and in fixing their conditions of work, by whomever done, come to an impressive total, but much of this can be handled by an intelligent clerical aide. Where a public library has a hundred employees or more, the designation of a personnel officer is meaningless if he is simply to concentrate only the routines which were previously dispersed. If he is to make a significant contribution to the work of the library, he needs the qualities of a staff officer; most essential is his ability to evaluate persons' abilities. Even then he may not be the best person in the library to visit library schools and talk to high school and college groups for recruiting. Though this position carries no power of command over others, it does involve close relations with the numerous department heads who have to leave part of their fate in the personnel officer's hands. Presumably he has technical skills to bring to

bear on personnel problems of the library and to carry out its personnel policies, but special techniques by no means assure wisdom and judgment in evaluating people, and that is the crux of good personnel work.

The number of such personnel officers in public libraries is still not large, but it can be expected to increase at a slow but steady rate in the future as it has in the past.²³ Almost without exception, library personnel officers were professional librarians originally, and only a very few have added to this any formal training or other experience in personnel work, though the knowledge and skill required of a personnel officer are as technical and as difficult as those of a librarian. Two main reasons why library personnel officers have been professional librarians and not professional personnel men are (a) the natural desire to have in this position someone intimately acquainted with the problems and circumstances of librarianship and even of the individual institution; and (b) the importance of having as personnel officer someone in whose judgment the chief librarian has confidence; this is more easily done by choosing him from the immediate staff or from the library profession than from an outside group. Nor of course is it by any means true that every trained personnel worker is thereby fitted or adequate.

Civil Service

Library personnel administration depends vitally on whether the library is under a legal system of civil service.²⁴ It is estimated that only a tenth are,²⁴ and there appears no trend to increase the number. Library administrators in general believe in employment for merit only, but they are opposed to civil service because of the many serious limitations it introduces. Most public library employees who have actually worked under civil service are satisfied if not actively in favor of it,²⁵ not because it assures quality of staff but because it tends to bring fringe benefits, higher pay and greater job security. Unfortunately it also makes the dismissal of incompetents more difficult.

Civil service introduces other difficulties: (a) it restricts the geographical area from which selection may be made; (b) its tests of competence and of personality are of dubious validity, especially for trained librarians; (c) it takes a long time to hold an examination, score the papers, and certify candidates; and (d) it tends to be inflexible in these and other ways. In many instances, delays in discovering applicants and in setting, preparing and rating examinations discourage the best candidates, especially for professional positions. In view of the long-term shortage of librarians, civil service methods of employee selection are more nearly appropriate to clerical and building maintenance positions. Libraries which have to operate under the traditional civil service practices are greatly handicapped, but the best civil service jurisdictions have improved their procedures, e.g., the "continuously open" examination of the TVA and of the United States

Civil Service Commission and the practice in several cities of having the librarian participate in recruiting, of scheduling more frequent and prompt examinations, and of having the candidates interviewed by a library representative. It is to the credit of civil service commissions that they have pioneered in position classification, salary schedules, service ratings, formal probationary period and other desirable personnel practices.

All of these practices are also available to non-civil service public libraries, but many such libraries have not utilized them. In some cases they have even violated the elementary principle of employment on merit, and rarely have the tests of fitness used by non-civil service public libraries been subjected to analysis for reliability and validity. However the best of the non-civil service public libraries have made a great contribution in staff development and library service by a high type of personnel administration, and several of them have assembled staffs of greater distinction than any civil service library. In general the presence or absence of civil service is less determining than the interest and care of the chief librarian in the library's personnel work.

DEFINING THE NUMBER AND KINDS OF POSITIONS

Organization for personnel administration in a given library inevitably leads to the need for some statement of the number and kinds of positions to be filled, and for a definition of their constituent tasks. A position consists of a group of duties and responsibilities assigned by competent authority to be performed by one person. It may be full-time or part-time, temporary or permanent, and can be considered separately from the person who happens to fill it at any one time. That is, a position exists even when it is not filled. Above all, a position is not a static thing; in the course of time it will change by reason of altered circumstances if not indeed by administrative decision. The qualifications and abilities of the person assigned to a given position constitute the greatest single force making for changes in it.

Someone has to decide for every library how many positions will be allowed at any given time, and their distribution by agency and grade level. In the case of those libraries with line-by-line budgets this is all spelled out for the year and can be changed only with the approval of the library board and the appropriating authority, an inflexible situation at best. In most public libraries the appropriation for salaries is in one or a few large groupings (e.g., custodial employees' salaries separate from those of all other staff members). Within each grouping the librarian is usually free, or at most with the approval of the board, to vary the number of positions in different grades or in different agencies, to substitute two part-time positions for one full-time (or vice versa), to alter the duties constituting individual

positions and to make other such changes, as long as the library's total salary appropriation limit is observed. Such authority, to alter the number and kinds of positions in the library, is needed to meet changes in the service program of the library and to cope with a changing labor market.

Schedules of Staff Quotas

In a library serving less than 25,000 people the librarian can undoubtedly keep in his head the complete picture of the number and kind of positions in the library. But any library with more than a dozen employees needs a table of authorized positions, revised from time to time, as in Table 12-2.

TABLE 12-2. Possible Table of Authorized Positions, for a Library Serving 25,000 Population: in Full-Time Equivalents

Department	Library aide	Senior library aide	Professional librarian	Custodian	Total
Adult	3	1	1.5	—	5.5
Children's	1	1	1	—	3
Technical services	.5	1	.5	—	2
Custodian	—	—	—	1	1
Library office	1	—	1	—	2
Total	5.5	3	4	1	13.5

One of the more important decisions involved at this point concerns the nature of the duties to be assigned to library aides. There is no difficulty in separating out custodial jobs, or in identifying purely clerical positions, such as typists. The difficulty comes usually in distinguishing those duties which require professional training and experience from those which are in fact or might be performed adequately if not also effectively by persons with lesser qualifications. The line of distinction is not a hard and fast one which can be drawn once and never altered. It will depend for example on the relative supply of trained librarians, and on the quality of the individual library aides. In general, any duty which can be transferred to a person of less experience and training should be so assigned, both to free the time of the better-qualified persons for even more difficult and responsible assignments and to reduce the salary cost of the work done. This transfer of duties has a long record in librarianship and in other professions; in medicine, for example, more and more jobs formerly the exclusive province of the doctor are being shared with or turned over to nurses, and nurses' traditional duties are increasingly being shifted to nurses' aides. The criterion of any such reassignment is whether the less well-qualified employee is able

to perform the duties in question satisfactorily in a nonemergency situation.

At various points in this book, reference is made to jobs which might well be handled by nonprofessional staff members but which have not always been so assigned. The frequency of nonprofessional or clerical tasks probably runs somewhat as follows: in technical services, help in ordering and receipt of books, typing of cards, physical preparation of books, accessioning, preliminary filing of cards and shelf listing; in circulation routines, charging and discharging, handling overdues and reserves, filing, shelving and statistics; in the reference department, checking and filing periodicals, handling pamphlets and clippings, assisting with exhibits, preparing books for bindery, mending and checking documents. Almost any clerical job consists partly of steps which are mechanical and require little judgment or discretion; so far as possible these should be separated out and assigned to nonprofessional assistants. Furthermore, the temptation is always to underestimate the ability of intelligent—perhaps even college-trained—library aides to learn new, more varied and more difficult tasks. Sometimes professional librarians resist this process because they fear that there will be nothing left for them to do. It is a proper test of the viability of a profession that new, important and more difficult tasks are always ahead for those who have the theoretical training and the practical experience, and this is certainly true of librarianship in general and of public librarians in particular.

POSITION CLASSIFICATION

The description and analysis of the duties of positions is usually called job evaluation, and in industry the point system and factor-comparison methods are the ones most often used. In government generally and in public libraries specifically the technique almost always employed is that of position classification.²⁶ In broad outline this consists of three main steps: (1) job analysis or the recording of the duties of all existing positions; (2) the comparison and grouping of the resultant job descriptions into more or less homogeneous classes of positions; and (3) the writing of specifications for each such class in order to state its particular attributes and to distinguish it from its neighbors.

Job Analysis

Job analysis is generally done by means of a position-description questionnaire,²⁷ and this can be made to serve well enough without employing more expensive techniques. Each employee on the payroll is asked to fill out such a questionnaire, desirably after some explanation of it and of the total project and after a chance to keep a work diary for a week at least. If the

position is a new one or is otherwise vacant, the immediate supervisor answers the questionnaire. Precision in stating one's duties (and in regard to such factors as extent of review by others, responsibility for error and scope of freedom for exercise of discretion) is not easy, as anyone can testify who has ever filled out a position-description questionnaire. The resulting statement should be reviewed by the employee's immediate supervisor to secure his comments and opinions without changing the individual employee's words. One of the desirable by-products of job analysis is the clarification of people's ideas as to what they are or are not supposed to be doing. The complete position-description questionnaire is a snapshot picture of the duties and responsibilities of the employee in question.

Classes, Grades, and Services

Once the position-description questionnaires are all completed and reviewed, they are read and reread by some one person, the personnel officer in the large public library or the librarian in the small or medium-sized library. This person makes a series of judgments as to the ways in which the various positions, described by the questionnaires, relate to each other. For one thing the questionnaires can be grouped by main type of work performed, viz., professional, library aides and custodial, in most libraries. These are called services and are vertical groupings in the schematic representation of the resultant position classification plan (see Table 12-3).

TABLE 12-3. Possible Outline of Classes, Grades and Services in a Public Library Serving 100,000 Population

Grade	Services	
	Professional	Custodial
1	_____	_____
2	_____	Custodian (6)
3	_____	Senior custodian (1)
4	Librarian (8)	Supt. of buildings and grounds (1)
5	Senior librarian (4)	_____
6	Department head (3)	_____
7	Assistant chief Librarian (1)	_____
8	Chief librarian (1)	_____
Total no. of positions:	(17)	(8)

The horizontal division in any one service consists of those positions which are considered to have duties sufficiently similar in level of difficulty and of responsibility to justify their being grouped together in the same class and treated alike for personnel purposes. One criterion for deciding when to put two positions in the same or in different classes is the applicability of the same tests of fitness for selection or promotion. A position is assigned to a class according to its actual duties, and not according to the qualifications of the person who happens to be performing those duties. If a registered nurse is serving as a typist, to pick an absurd example, the position is grouped with other typists' positions; similarly a position consisting of clerical duties but performed by a library school graduate should be grouped with other clerical positions and not with the professional positions. All classes of positions, in different services, which are deemed to consist of duties of approximately the same level of difficulty and responsibility are said to be in the same grade.

Class Specifications

The third main step of position classification is to prepare a written statement describing the attributes of each class of positions. Class specifications may be longer or shorter, but reasonable limits are from a half to a full page per class. Such class specifications consist of the class title, the distinguishing characteristics of the work constituting positions assigned to the class, examples of specific duties appropriate to such positions, and the qualifications deemed necessary for successful performance of the work of positions in the class. In this last regard, the modern trend is to list only those personal character traits which are peculiarly important to positions in this class, and to state the necessary qualifications in terms of knowledges and skills clearly needed for successful performance rather than in terms of levels of academic achievement alone.²⁸ Class specifications are of little value in themselves, save to assign properly a new or revised position, but are useful and desirable in other personnel processes (such as selection, promotion, salary administration, transfer). A possible class specification for senior librarian (see Table 12-3) is shown below. Position classification plans of libraries are easily available and are useful for suggestions; they should not be copied directly or followed blindly because they should reflect the circumstances of the one library in which the job analysis was made.

Class Specification for Senior Librarian

Distinguishing Characteristics of Work: supervision over other employees; responsibility for the service of a branch or other agency; constant dealings with readers, the contents of books and library tools and methods.

Some Specific Duties: supervising and training assistants, answering reference questions, selecting books for purchase, recommending changes in policies.

Qualifications Needed: background, poise and ability to supervise other staff members and to deal effectively with patrons, as demonstrated by successful professional experience; subject knowledge and of books and library techniques such as is likely to be achieved by successful completion of an undergraduate college program of study and of a fifth year of study in a graduate library school.

The rules for the administration of the position classification plan are next in importance only to the class specifications; they should include definitions of terms, provision for the reclassification of individual positions and for resurveys of all positions (every five years or so), an explanation of the class specifications, the procedure for the classification of a new position, etc. A number of individual and corporate consultants will for a fee prepare a position classification plan for a library. But it is not difficult to prepare such a plan, and the librarian who does it himself will learn more and appreciate its value and limitations better than in any other way. Though the grouping of position description questionnaires and the writing of class specifications are necessarily done by one person (or at most a small committee), the results should be conveyed to all the employees of the library before the position classification plan is officially adopted by the trustees. The usual procedure is to make available the proposed class specifications and to certify to each employee the class, grade and service to which his position is being assigned. Within a certain time period, he may ask for a review of the allocation of his position. In addition, the plan in its entirety should be reviewed by the librarian and the department heads. After submission to the trustees and upon their adoption it becomes effective.

This in brief is the process of library job evaluation. The value of a position classification plan is that it enables the librarian to deal intelligently with relatively few groups of homogeneous positions, and not with each of a larger group of individual positions. Like other methods of job evaluation, a position classification plan rests on individual judgments at certain crucial points and thus cannot be absolutely impartial and accurate. It needs therefore to be kept reasonably flexible and fluid, so that errors already incorporated in it may be corrected when detected and so that changes deemed necessary in the service program of the library will not be hampered by it. In other words, the dominant consideration is that the plan expedite the administrative needs of the institution, and not freeze existing work assignments or prevent reassignments. Finally, job evaluation by itself does not guarantee good personnel administration, but it does provide a good base for most other aspects of personnel work. Position classification, for example, is necessary for a sound salary plan, but one may have position classification without a sound salary plan and at least some

sort of a salary plan without position classification. All the organization for personnel administration is preparation for effective day-to-day operation, especially the selection of new employees; and all the machinery and techniques are of little consequence if those who make these selections come up with only mediocre appointments.

GENERAL REFERENCES

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2. William E. Mosher, J. D. Kingsley, and O. G. Stahl. *Public Personnel Administration*. 4th ed. 656 p. 1956. Harper. \$7.50.
3. Institute for Training in Municipal Administration. *Municipal Personnel Administration*. 6th ed. 414 p. 1960. International City Managers Association. \$7.50.
- The foregoing three books deal mostly with large organizations.
4. Frances Torbert. *Personnel Management in Small Companies*. 102 p. 1951. Institute of Industrial Relations. Univ. of California, Los Angeles. Practical and helpful.
5. Lowell Martin, ed. *Personnel Administration in Libraries*. 168 p. 1946. Univ. of Chicago Press. Consists of 12 papers of which half are by librarians and half by personnel men.
6. Alice I. Bryan. *The Public Librarian*. 474 p. 1952. Columbia Univ. Press. A report of the Public Library Inquiry, based on extensive field data.
7. Bernard Van Horne, ed. *Current Trends in Personnel Administration*. *Library Trends*, 3: 1-94. July 1954.
8. Kathleen B. Stebbins. *Personnel Administration in Libraries*. 304 p. 1958. Scarecrow Press. \$5. Of primary value for its description of practices in large public libraries.
- For current developments, see the issues of *Personnel*, *Personnel Administration*, *Personnel Journal* and especially of *Personnel Literature*, a monthly annotated list, mentioned at the end of the General References in Chapter 6 above.

FOOTNOTES AND SPECIAL MATERIAL

9. Some current personnel problems found in many libraries are noted in a statement of the Los Angeles Public Library director to the trustees and later to the city council, viz., the higher salaries received by school and special librarians, the national shortage of librarians making it difficult to compete under the best of conditions, lack of promotional opportunities in some areas of work, low beginning salaries in LAPL, lack of sufficient staff with resulting irregular schedules and stress, necessity for evening and Saturday work and for work in outlying areas, and lack of monetary recognition for subject specialization and book knowledge. Los Angeles Public Library, *Operation LAPL*. Jan. 31, 1961. p. 3.
10. Rose Vainstein. *Statistics of Public Libraries: 1955-56*. (Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1954-56.) 1959. U. S. Office of Education. Chapter 5, p. 86.
11. Enoch Pratt Free Library. *Salary Statistics for Large Public Libraries for 1961*. \$1.25. Large lithoprint sheet.
12. Alice I. Bryan. *op. cit.* p. 431-32.
13. Ruth M. White, ed. *Public Library Policies—General and Specific*. (*Public Library Reporter*, no. 9). 116 p. 1960. A. L. A. p. 33-73.

14. Errett W. and John McDiarmid. *The Administration of the American Public Library*. 1943. A. L. A. p. 168.

15. By Indiana law, the board can appoint only those persons recommended by the chief librarian; Burns' *Annotated Indiana Statutes*. 41-915 (1).

16. See the staff manuals of various public libraries such as those of Charlotte, N.C. 44 p. 1958; Knoxville, Tenn. 32 p. 1960; Summit, N.J. 12 p. 1960; and Tampa, Fla. 60 p. 1957.

17. McDiarmid. *op. cit.* p. 168.

18. *Ibid.* p. 170.

19. *Public Library Service: A Guide to Evaluation with Minimum Standards*. 1956. A. L. A. p. 41.

20. Dale Yoder. *op. cit.* p. 18-19.

21. Phyllis Osteen. "The Personnel Office and the Personnel Officer," in Bernard Van Horne, ed. *Current Trends in Personnel Administration*. *Library Trends*. 3: 59-66. July 1954.

22. The McDiarmids reported only two full-time personnel officers in 212 public libraries, each serving over 30,000 population in 1940. *op. cit.* p. 169. In 1961, of 42 public libraries each serving over 300,000 population, 20 had personnel officers, in 6 others this function was assigned to the assistant librarian. None of these 26 libraries had less than 140 employees. See *Salary Statistics for Large Public Libraries for 1961*. *op. cit.*

23. John B. Kaiser. "Civil Service in Libraries," in Bernard Van Horne, ed. *Current Trends in Personnel Administration*. *Library Trends*. 3: 80-94. July 1954.

24. Of 4,089 libraries reporting on this in 1956, less than 400 were under civil service, and over half of these were in only three states. Vainstein. *op. cit.* p. 36, 88-89.

25. Alice I. Bryan. *op. cit.* p. 173-80.

26. Kenneth Byers, et al. *Elements of Position Classification in Local Government*, Civil Service Assembly. Personnel Report No. 554. 50 p. 1955. Also, A.L.A. Board of Personnel Administration. *Position Classification and Salary Administration in Libraries*. 81 p. 1951. A.L.A. Also North Carolina Library Association. *North Carolina Public Library Personnel Manual*. 1959. University of North Carolina Institute of Government. p. 7-11, 22-44.

27. Samples of such a form may be readily found in some of the books in the "General References," noted above.

28. About 30 years or so ago, many large public libraries had what was called a "graded scheme of service." This was a grouping of library positions by the education and experience of their incumbents. Even today most colleges and public schools have a similar or comparable grading of faculty, by their academic achievements and years of experience. But all such persons are performing essentially the same duties, those of a teacher, and therefore some other device must be found to separate them into subgroups for salary purposes. Public libraries which are under school boards tend to use this same pattern for the definition of their positions or as a modification of the position classification plan described in the text here, at least in part because it enables them to tie in with the school teachers' salary schedule. See Clarence A. Weber. *Personnel Problems of School Administrators*. 1954. McGraw-Hill. p. 260.

CHAPTER 13

The Selection of Staff Members

The heart of personnel administration, its most important result, is the discovery, selection and appointment of notably good new staff members. Each vacancy presents an unequalled opportunity to strengthen the staff by a wise appointment. Each poorly qualified person appointed lowers the morale of the staff and the effectiveness of the library. It is difficult to make a correct judgment as to an applicant's present possession of desired skills and personality traits, let alone his ability to grow in the future and to develop into a leader or supervisor. Any administrator may expect to make some mistakes as he develops his judgment in the selection of new staff members. If wise, he will use all possible devices to minimize those mistakes and their consequences, to free the library from persons who impede it, and to learn all that he can from each such mistake.^{1, 2}

The chief qualification for anyone responsible for the selection of employees is maturity of experience, character and judgment. He must be able to convey to others a keen sense of the social value and importance of the position to be filled. In turn he needs to have or to develop the ability to weigh the strengths and weaknesses of candidates and to choose the best one, or to prevent a mediocre appointment if the best is not good enough. He needs to keep control of the situation, sometimes completely reshape it, gather more and better candidates and not let difficulties of the moment give an excuse for compromise on quality. In addition he needs to like and understand people and to enjoy working with them. Finally, he needs to understand each part of the library, the very different aspects of its work, the distinctive viewpoints, abilities and personal qualities required for each of these aspects, and also the individual department or agency heads. The great temptation in personnel selection is to be too easily satisfied, to give too great weight to the natural desires and pressures of applicants to get a job, and to give too little weight to the progress and welfare of the library.

RECRUITMENT OF APPLICANTS

The quality of the persons appointed can obviously be no higher than the quality of those who can be induced to apply and who are considered

for the position. A positive and aggressive campaign of recruitment of excellent candidates is essential to the appointment of well-qualified persons. This advice will sound hollow indeed to a library administrator facing a shortage of professional librarians and able to offer only an average or below-average salary. But several measures are worth trying, for they have brought some success.² Certainly it is unwise to consider only those who apply of their own accord, and simply to fill the job regardless of merit. Such an appointment has been termed "a body in a chair." Even a few such appointments in a large staff give the whole organization a sense of failure and lead to difficulties far worse than leaving the job unfilled.

Review of the Position

Before recruitment of applicants for a given position is even begun, the position itself should be reviewed by the chief librarian (or by the personnel officer, in large libraries). Is it possible and desirable that the position be dropped and its duties reassigned to others? Does it belong in the grade where it is, or more properly in a lower or higher grade? Lowering the desired qualifications will make recruiting easier, but the quality of resulting service may suffer. Perhaps the more difficult duties could be reassigned, and the position allocated to a lower grade and an untrained person hired. Obviously this review of the position-description questionnaire and of the specifications of the class to which the position is assigned should be made in consultation with the supervisor or department head concerned. In the natural course the requirements for each position are likely to be more exacting as time passes.

Sources of Applicants

There may be good candidates inside the library; never should they be overlooked, and a checkoff of the staff may turn up a promising one. Announcing a hard-to-fill vacancy to the staff and inviting them to suggest names of possible candidates increases the number of active recruiters, if they are moved to get word to their friends that the library is a desirable place in which to work. Usually the vacant position is at the entering level of the scale, whether professional, nonprofessional or custodial. Normally, vacancies in positions above the entering level would be filled by promotion; this involves another type of recruitment inside the library, as discussed in the next chapter. Even for a position at the entering level, present staff members could be invited to apply for a transfer. This may or may not make it easier to secure the needed new staff member but it is worthwhile if it leads to better placement and greater happiness of the transferred employee.

A vigorous recruitment campaign is impossible without open announce-

ment of the vacancy, of the desired qualifications and of the salary offered; and it is just as important to spread the news outside as inside the library. Such public announcement is usual under civil service, but most non-civil service libraries now profitably resort to this technique, despite reluctance of some trustees and librarians. It makes possible the use of such standard devices as advertisements in library periodicals stating the highest salary manageable and emphasizing the importance of the job, recruitment visits to library schools, a mimeographed or printed brochure distributed widely by mail, and posting announcements of the vacancy at conventions of professional associations (where job offers run many times the number of applicants). Recruitment includes giving prospective applicants enough information and encouragement so that they can decide whether they are qualified for the vacancy and interested in being considered for it. Some recent job advertisements in library magazines play up climate, recreation and fringe benefits, whereas a worthwhile trained librarian is primarily interested in the professional aspects: What opportunity is there for his special abilities and interests?

For nonprofessionals and custodians there are local channels of recruitment, such as private and public employment agencies, local high schools and colleges, and newspaper advertisements. It is in the clerical and janitorial grades that political and personal friends rush forward with suggested candidates, of whom a large proportion are hardly worth considering. Most public libraries of any size accept applications for employment at any time; these will usually be consulted first when a vacancy occurs. But many such applications are filed by people who are not the best qualified, and the longer their application has been on file the less satisfactory they are likely to be.

Recruitment Methods

In order to secure an outstanding or indeed merely a qualified person, the present personnel shortage calls for great ingenuity and creativeness. What does the library have to offer and to whom will it appeal? Obviously salary is important; a higher than average salary will bring better results than a lower salary. But many trustees fail to back up the librarian by even knowing what current professional salaries are, e.g., \$5,200 average in 1961 and \$5,600 in several cities, for new library school graduates. A library in a temperate climate and with a flexible retirement age can draw on the services of many outstanding older people, as do some of our most distinguished colleges and universities.

Young library school graduates are more likely to apply for a position in a library of above average reputation where they are assured fully professional duties, stimulating and challenging assignments, a chance to grow and develop on the job and well-developed in-service training; a library

which offers some or all of these things should stress the facts in recruitment letters, publicity and interviews. Is it possible that there are good candidates in the neighborhood? Perhaps former staff members living nearby could be induced to return to the library. The old prejudice against hiring married women has evaporated in the face of the shortage of librarians. Perhaps they can work at least part time; often they are remarkably good librarians, and they tend to stay longer than young people who are free and eager to move.

The "recruitment net" includes sending carefully prepared notices to library schools. Most of their best graduating students will get a flood of offers between January 1 and April 15, after which chances are slim for recruiting from that crop. Sending the library schools an announcement of the vacancy is always worthwhile since there may be one or more students who would like to work in your community or in your size library. Most of the larger libraries now send a representative to visit library schools before April 1, to interview the most promising candidates. They will also attend state and national library meetings with a list of possibilities to follow up. There may be good staff members (and even professional librarians) among the wives of students or of faculty in a local college, among the teachers of the local school system or in the families of technical and professional persons locally employed.

Older Workers and the Disabled

Like most employers, librarians are reluctant to consider "over 45" workers for clerical and sub-professional positions, for fear they may be set in their work ways, slow, intolerant with colleagues, not open-minded in taking instructions and unhappy in a new field. Several studies indicate, however, that they have as much ability, greater steadiness and less turnover than is true of younger persons. In any good-sized town there may be such a person, who will not apply for a position but would accept appointment, perhaps after having brought a family to college age and wishing to capitalize on her own college preparation and book interest. Without such qualifications, plus a good personality, and a flair for service, "over 45's" are seldom good risks. The choice of such persons is not an easy one, and should be made by a selection committee. Since they are local residents, they might be given a limited appointment for a year or two, with the hope they will qualify as decidedly above average.

Disabled workers too should be considered as a possible source of help. Widespread experience with them has demonstrated convincingly that a disabled or handicapped person is usually able to work satisfactorily at a job which does not involve his disability, and that such a worker is more conscientious and dependable than others, perhaps as a result of his gratitude for a chance at a job.

Part-Time and Volunteer Workers

Most library supervisors prefer one full-time employee to two part-time. The latter require more instruction, they have outside interests (a family or school work), and their irregular schedule offers many chances for tardiness or absence. Almost every public library, however, uses part-time student assistants successfully as "pages," to shelve books and do other jobs (as discussed in Chapter 17), at the peak hours after school and in the evenings, and all college libraries depend on them heavily. Use of part-time employees in public libraries, under appropriate circumstances, would open up the greatest untapped labor supply available, the many college-trained women who are wives and mothers but would like to work part time.

Volunteer or unpaid workers are anathema in most public libraries, because often they are unreliable, undependable and inefficient. But many other institutions, such as the Red Cross and most museums, depend on volunteers to do much of the work, and student assistants in school libraries are in a sense volunteers. Obviously public librarians too could learn the necessary arrangements for tactful screening, proper training and best use of volunteers. Some of the many jobs which volunteers have done in libraries include maintaining local history clipping and picture files, telling stories to children, helping on the bookmobile, writing publicity, reviewing books and typing. It might be nice to have library school graduates available to do everything, but the prospects are for increased use of educated untrained workers, and the best of those may be found in some of these special categories.

Long-Range Recruiting

More and more chief librarians are recognizing the need for long-range recruitment. This means in part paying more attention to the selection of high school and college students who may work only part time or in summers for the public library. Some of them are interested in librarianship as a career, to begin with; others might be induced to consider it.⁴ Those interested should be given more varied assignments, assisted to complete their education and encouraged to return to the library after library school. Supervisors should see that each promising young worker has a dynamic older worker assigned to be his guide, mentor and encourager while working in the library. Experience with such a person usually leads to a fair evaluation of his capabilities. Even if he enters the profession and doesn't return to work in the first library, there is one more trained librarian; if more libraries were active in this way, more would be able to share in the results.

Another type of long-range recruitment now used in many libraries is the device of library trainees or interns. The library hires a college graduate for a limited number of years while he decides whether to enter the pro-

fession or while he completes his professional training. This has advantages for the individual; and the library has time to evaluate the employee's work before making a permanent commitment. Some public libraries offer scholarships to library school students on condition that they work in that library for at least two or three years after they finish their education. Yet another type of long-range recruitment is to sound out promising young librarians as to their interest in a possible future vacancy.

To date, the recruiting literature issued by local libraries and by state and national groups fails to stress sufficiently two of the most appealing aspects of librarianship—the deep satisfactions in reference and informational service to readers, especially to adult readers; and the great opportunity for management abilities, as heads of departments, of libraries and branches, of special activities and services. The day is over when recruiting can be based on a desire to retreat from the world into sheltered nooks with books. The appeal of dynamic service to society, with consequential materials, needs to be played up. Librarians could profitably seek to identify outstanding young persons who would make good recruits, for example, high school seniors reported in local newspapers as receiving honors, and to attract the promising ones into librarianship, even to helping them get college scholarships; similarly to find and contact promising college students.

What If No Good Candidate?

There is still the question as to what to do if no applicant, or no acceptable one, is secured. Regardless of the need, the temptation or the pressure, an undesirable person should not be appointed. It will be better to leave the job vacant for a few months and make a new attempt, assuming the position is too vital to scrap. More than one library has found unsuspected benefits in having to review critically the need for and the duties of a given position for which no good candidates could be found. The creative skill in adjusting the work to be done to the personnel resources available is a necessary attribute of a successful administrator. The ultimate criterion is to recruit and select staff members with the best possible qualifications, rather than to freeze jobs and to insist on finding people who fit previously held notions as to what constitutes the necessary preparation for those jobs.

SELECTING THE APPOINTEE

The process of selecting the one best-qualified person should be carefully thought out and planned, and not left to chance or to last-minute decisions. These selection methods need to be periodically reviewed, evaluated and if

necessary revised. The steps taken should be based on three main considerations: (a) the library needs staff members of the best possible quality of mind and personality, in each type and level of service; (b) the only basis of consideration should be the merit of the candidates, and no discrimination or preference should be allowed on grounds unrelated to qualities needed for successful performance; and (c) the selection process should operate as swiftly and inexpensively as is consistent with getting the needed results. This is particularly true at present because of the many offers available to good appointees.

It cannot be overlooked that selection of a new staff member is a two-way process. The library is looking for the best possible employee; but an intelligent individual is looking for the best possible employer. To the administrator this means that potential candidates, especially the best ones, must be persuaded to apply by being given reasonably complete information on the library, the professional opportunity of the position in question, working conditions, chances for promotion, etc. It means also that the selection process must be rightly timed, as in the case of library school students, and not be so inconvenient, complicated or long drawn out as to frustrate the applicant or cool his enthusiasm. It is a devastating experience to find a really promising candidate and one who would strengthen the library, only to lose him because the library, the trustees, or the civil service officers have moved so slowly that the candidate has given up waiting and has taken another position. And finally, it is incumbent on the library to see to it that an applicant has a realistic picture of the job and of the community. Nothing is gained by overselling, unless one likes turnover and struggling once more through the selection process.

Four main bases for choice of candidates are (1) the paper record, including the application blank, letters of reference and a transcript of school and college grades; (2) an interview; (3) the results of tests given by the library; and (4) a probationary period. These may all be evaluated by one person but better by a small committee, and a choice made. Even for clerical and custodial positions, at least two persons should review the evidence on each applicant and agree on the choice. The immediate supervisor of the position to be filled, and the personnel officer, librarian or other such person with a system-wide point of view should share in decisions for appointment. For professional positions or upper-level positions of any kind, a small committee, including appropriate supervisors and department heads as well as the librarian or personnel officer, should hold the interview and make the selection.

The Application Blank

The application blank is aimed at securing information necessary to evaluate the candidate's probable job success. It cannot be used as a means

to sift out applicants, because some are decidedly less adept in filling out a blank. It should be legible, easily comprehended, short and simple. It should not request information available in other ways, e.g., a list of courses taken in college or library school, or not needed until the appointment is made (such as social security number). Line supervisors can usually criticize the application form as to what information is needed and not requested, and what is requested but not needed. Application blanks sometimes carry the statement that the information will be kept confidential; this is neither altogether possible nor desirable.

Every library will have a mimeographed or printed application blank of its own design, readily available to any applicant. One application blank can be designed to serve for all types of positions, though larger libraries may prefer special forms for custodians, pages, clerical assistants, etc. Selecting a new employee begins on receipt of a completed application blank. If delivered in person, it should be checked while the applicant is present, to see that all data are there and correct. The applicant should be told something of the personnel policies of the library, such as salary schedule, and have his questions answered. If there is a vacancy or if the applicant is unusually well-qualified, he should be interviewed at once by someone able to make a prompt decision or recommendation. Applications submitted by job hunters need not be kept more than six months; by that time many are unavailable anyway. Each promising nonprofessional applicant should be told to renew his application at a given date if he is still interested.

When an application is filed by a person judged to have the qualifications for an existing vacancy, a clerical assistant can secure the candidate's paper record, such as the transcript of courses and grades, for graduates of high school, college or library school. Within three or four years after graduation, a candidate's academic record is less important than his work record. Library schools vary in the completeness of the information they supply on their graduates; they vary even more, but not so obviously, in the standards they use (consciously or unconsciously) in rating students. More meaningful and more comparable, if available in the academic record, are the applicant's scores on national and standardized tests, such as the Graduate Record Examination.

Letters of Reference

Letters of reference are peculiarly subject to misuse. Perhaps their main value is as negative checks. Letters of reference carried by the candidate or of which he has been sent a copy are almost completely worthless; few heads or instructors have the courage to let the individual know how they really rate him. Many libraries send to the reference a prepared form that requires a minimum of writing. If the reference lives in the same city, it is better to telephone him, ask him frank questions, get his oral answers to

the questions on the form, and put down the answers so they will not be misinterpreted or forgotten. One seldom gets the whole truth about a candidate from his character references. Previous employers tend to give a too-favorable report, and a present employer may be anxious to lose his services. A critical evaluation of a candidate's previous work is more likely when his former supervisor or employer is a personal friend of yours and you can talk to him privately about the case. For these reasons, favorable or neutral letters of reference are seldom of value.⁵

The Interview with Applicants

It is a good rule to hire no employee without his having been interviewed by at least one person.⁶ An employment interview is a two-way, face-to-face relationship in which the applicant almost inevitably feels under considerable stress. It is up to the librarian to plan and handle such interviews so this stress and embarrassment are minimized. An untrained or insensitive interviewer may draw conclusions that are untrue or are even the reverse of the facts in the matter. Librarians who regularly need to interview persons for employment should at least read some of the many good books available on the subject.⁷ The few notes which follow are the barest outline of what such persons need to know.

It should be clearly decided in advance just what purposes are to be achieved in the interview. For example, interviewing is not the best method to ascertain the candidate's general intelligence or technical competence. An employment interview should serve one main and two minor purposes—to allow the interviewer to make some observations on the appearance, manner, personality, attitudes and reactions of the interviewee, and incidentally to fill out the details in his paper record and to give him additional information about the community, the library and the job in question. If these are the purposes of the interview, then the interviewer needs to have a clear picture in his mind of the kind of person desired, and the interviewee should be put at his ease as much as possible. If the interview is considered as a sort of oral examination, then the applicant is bound to be under stress, and his manner and behavior will not be as they are under ordinary circumstances.

Putting an interviewee at his ease means to treat him naturally so as to encourage him to talk and act as he would normally. He should not be maneuvered into a chair where he faces a strong light, nor where he feels that he is being overheard by others. One of the great advantages of an interview away from the library, as at an A. L. A. convention, is that both parties are on neutral ground. But the applicant should also come to the library, where he can converse with more than one person and see something of the library, which may help him make up his mind. Using the

paper record of the applicant as a point of departure, the interviewer seeks to get the candidate to talk about himself. It is probably not wise to make extensive notes, which might make him self-conscious, especially at the beginning of the interview, but some record of the interview, however brief, should be made immediately afterward.

Even so, an interview produces unstable and subjective results. What we happen to like or dislike in people gets in the way. Judgments are based on impressions from a small sample of observations of an interviewee who is otherwise a stranger. An applicant, especially for a professional position, should not be given any reason to feel that the librarian is taking a critical, unappreciative, inattentive or negative attitude toward him. It helps to have an interview rating form to fill out, specifying the factors to be observed and rated, since bias develops in the interviewer early and fast.⁸

Having two or more persons talk to the same applicant also helps to stabilize the results, especially if they sit in on the same interview. This has the danger of increasing the stress on the applicant, but it has the advantages of allowing independent observations of the same behavior, and of each interviewer restraining the other's tendencies to warp the situation (as by talking too much). It permits closer observation of the candidate by sharing the job of conducting the interview, and one interviewer's questions may stimulate the others and the candidate to helpful discussion. The interviewers should record their opinions and discuss them, as soon after the interview as possible and before their memory dims. The interview is so universal a method of selection, and is so easy to improve—within limits—that every librarian is under obligation to insure these improvements in the process of staff selection. The personal factor is obviously important in library work; for practical results the best available way to assess it is by interviewing.

Tests and Examinations

To date no satisfactory written or work tests have been developed by those who have attempted them, but this may be because not enough study has yet been made of library situations by persons sufficiently competent to devise valid tests. A physical examination is a specialized kind of test, and many libraries require at least a physician's certificate of good health. A timed typing test, scored for number of errors, measures a skill commonly needed and is more valid than the grade achieved by the candidate in a typing course, because differing standards between schools and between teachers in the same school make any academic grade of doubtful value as an index of present ability. But there are no valid tests of technical library competence now available for general use; and making such a test is a highly complicated business.

Mental testing—increasingly used in industry and government—is a field for experts, not amateurs, especially in such areas as tests of interests and personality.⁹ The deficiencies in civil service tests for library positions have been a chief target of criticism by librarians. Test facilities for non-professional staff members are available through state employment agencies.¹⁰ If tests are used, as of general intelligence, they are not always easily scored or the scores easily interpreted. They should be used with the advice of an expert, they should be only a part of the selection process, and the test results not allowed by themselves automatically to determine the appointment or nonappointment of an individual. Under those circumstances, it would be desirable to use some of the trade, aptitude, ability and intelligence tests now available, and even more desirable if valid written or performance tests could be constructed specifically for library positions.

Certification of librarians is no substitute for tests or examinations. Typically an appropriate certificate is issued simply on the basis of academic achievement and years of experience.¹¹ It does not represent an attempt to look into individual aptitudes and abilities. Whatever examination is offered is an alternative for those who have not gone to college or library school, unlike the examinations in law and accounting, for example, which are required of all and establish a minimum level of demonstrated competence. Even if library certification were always based on such an examination, it would not fill the individual library's need for a means of selecting the one best person. On the other hand, certification is sometimes a positive handicap if the library is unable to consider for employment any persons except those who hold certificates of that particular state. In any case, library certification laws typically have no enforcement provisions.¹²

Probationary Period

A probationary period plays an integral part in the selection process, if it is properly used. No matter how much attention is given to the prior steps in the selection process, they supply only presumptive evidence as to the candidate's job performance. His actual work performance during the probationary period is the acid test, even though only one candidate at a time can be given this test for any one position. The costs to both the library and himself, if he fails this last test, are high. New employees whose work during the probationary period is of borderline quality are so often given the benefit of the doubt that most probationers (and their colleagues) take it for granted that they will be retained. For letting these mediocre workers continue, the library pays dearly for years to come. Most public libraries of any size have problem staff members who should never have been allowed to pass their probation. If all reasonable efforts at im-

provement and adjustment fail, the library and its patrons have priority rights, and the individual and the institution should call it quits.

Though the probationary period is an expensive test, it is the most valid. If it is to be used as a final test of a new employee's permanent appointment, then it follows that he should be so informed before he accepts employment and begins work. The official statement of employment should specify that there is a probationary period, how long it is, and that future employment is conditional on successful completion of the probation. For proper evaluation of a new employee's work, the probationary period should not be less than six months for a nonprofessional staff member or a year for a professional librarian. Under present conditions, some professionally trained persons are unwilling to subject themselves to the uncertainty of probation, but these are likely to be the less desirable ones. A library handicaps itself if it waives the probationary period when negotiating or making an appointment, as long as the standards are reasonable. As a matter of fact, the tendency is all the other way; too many libraries retain not-good-enough workers both trained and untrained.

Systematic recording of observations and judgments by at least one and desirably two supervisors or other staff members should be made for each new employee, on the service rating form discussed in Chapter 14. Merely a brief oral report by the supervisor may not suffice in a showdown if the employee is to be dropped. A probationary appointment should never be made permanent automatically or unless objection is raised, but only by virtue of a positive act by someone in a position to certify that the new employee's work is definitely satisfactory and acceptable. A supervisor should be asked to say whether he would be anxious and not merely willing to retain the services of the individual in his own department indefinitely.

During the probationary period the employee should be encouraged to report difficulties and to secure advice and assistance in solving them. No person should be dismissed summarily because of a poor report on his probation. Any such unfavorable report should lead to a constructive performance interview, including a review of his side of the case. Transferring him to another job may give him a new chance, and two supervisors' opinions are better than one when his probation is ended. Whether the report on a new employee is favorable or unfavorable, it is wise for the librarian, or the personnel officer, to tell him so; it sometimes happens that the supervisor is satisfied but the employee is not. Probation is a two-way street; the institution is on trial with the individual, and the new employee with the institution. To keep the services of a good assistant and to help him pass his probation, the library needs to see (1) that he is assigned to work which as nearly as possible allows him to maximize his contribution and achievement; (2) that he is effectively supervised and encouraged; and (3) that he is told what he needs to know to do his job well and to improve

himself. These and other matters constitute the third main stage of the selection process.

APPOINTMENT AND PLACEMENT

The process of employee selection leads to a letter or notice of appointment. Public libraries under some boards of school trustees use a contract, and if the library is under civil service the civil service commission may send the appointee an official notification of employment. But not many public libraries are under school boards or civil service. In any other case, when a person is appointed to a library position, whether temporary or permanent, full-time or part-time, he should be so notified in writing, with the terms of employment, the name of his immediate supervisor and the date on which to start work. Ordinarily this notice should be sent out before the new staff member begins work; if official action by the trustees is necessary to make the appointment legal, the letter may not be sent until after the date of that action. Usually it is not necessary to have the employee accept the appointment in writing, though that may be wise in the case of new professional librarians or other higher-level personnel who live in other cities. Their appointments should in any case be submitted to the board well in advance of the effective date of employment.

The Definite Position

The exact job to be filled by the new employee would normally have been reviewed and discussed with him in the course of the selection process. Some flexibility in this may help utilize his special skills or experience, and the job may be modified if possible to meet his wishes and interests. The limits of such adjustment may be narrower in the case of a routine clerical job, and wider in the case of an unspecialized professional assistant. But to whatever extent some adjustment is possible, as in choice of location or work assignment, or the promise of consideration for a transfer, to that extent the proper placement of the new employee is made easier. One of the intangible aspects of the employee's first assignment is his probable compatibility with his supervisor and colleagues, one of the reasons why the supervisor should participate in the selection of a new assistant. But even so the librarian must consider whether that supervisor is likely to be effective in giving the new employee proper orientation to the library and his job, and in providing him with the work climate which will bring out his best contribution.

Orientation

Orientation of a new employee is a frequent form of in-service training, and includes at least three parts—the details of the work environment, the

background of the library's history and organization, and the duties and responsibilities of the specific job.¹² The supervisor will tell the recruit the details of work schedule, names of other staff members, when and how salary checks are distributed, where to hang one's clothes, etc. A written statement of this information is desirable, for the employee to keep and consult. A new employee cannot absorb at once everything he needs to know; he needs time to assimilate it, for he can at first hardly know what questions to ask.

New employees, even pages and custodians, should be given information as to library history, organization, government, finances, services, etc. To their families and friends they *are* the library; their ignorance and disinterest in the library can be damaging, and their knowledge and enthusiasm for their new employer helpful and valuable. Conveying this background information is a good job for the librarian; it gives him a chance to meet *all* new staff members (and vice versa), and he then can be sure that the correct material and desired point of view have been presented. New professional staff members need more of this background than do other new employees, and several meetings with various department heads and a guided tour of the library are often arranged for them. Though such meetings take time and therefore cost money, failure to provide such information systematically to new employees may also be expensive, in terms of their inability to perform as well as they might otherwise, their failure to develop kinship with the institution, and their having to learn the same information piecemeal over a period of time.

Work Assignment and Instruction

Orientation in-service training includes explaining to the new employee just what he is to do, as discussed in Chapter 16. How well is this explaining done? Too often the training process is more like the "sink or swim" technique than like the practices recommended to all teachers, including those in industry and business. Briefly the process of teaching anybody anything consists of five basic steps—preparing the person to learn (motivation), telling him how to do the job (explanation), showing him how to do it (demonstration), watching him do it (practice) and following up later to be sure he has learned how to do it correctly (evaluation). A new typist needs to know the location of her supplies, the library's decisions on matters of style and the priorities of the work which comes to her. A new shelving assistant, who as a patron never learned what those numbers on the backs of the books mean, is in for a real learning experience. This sort of training is usually done by the supervisor and by word-of-mouth. Much of it could be reduced to job instruction sheets; if there are two or more new employees at a time, much of it can be told them in a group, e.g., borrower registration and circulation procedures, filing rules, etc.

Personnel Records and Files

Some libraries use a checklist for each new employee's orientation training, to see that all of the instruction is given him; when completed it is placed in his personnel folder. In time this folder will contain such other records as the original application blank, the probationary period service ratings, a copy of the letter of appointment, application for membership in the retirement system, hospital insurance, social security number, sick leave taken, promotions and salary increases.

The individual employee's personnel folder is the central and official repository of the original documents. It is easy to design a 5-by-8-inch card form which will summarize the pertinent information, and such a card file is a valuable working tool for the librarian or the personnel officer.¹⁴

The payroll must also be based on the personnel folders, if the record of salary changes is officially kept by name of employee. Large libraries use a personnel action form to record any new or changed information on a given employee; this form is then routed to those who need to see it, before it is filed in the employee's folder. Personnel folders naturally tend to grow in bulk through the years. They should therefore be reviewed periodically, out-of-date papers destroyed, and information for previous years summarized. When an employee leaves the library, his folder should go into the inactive file; and after ten years it should be reviewed, the essential information perhaps microfilmed and the papers destroyed.

GENERAL REFERENCES

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2. Milton M. Mandell. *Recruiting and Selecting Office Employees*. 175 p. 1956. (American Management Association Research Report No. 27.) Especially good for recruitment, use of the application blank, interviewing, testing and the reference inquiry.

FOOTNOTES AND SPECIAL MATERIALS

3. John F. Harvey. "Action Manual for Library Recruiters: Sponsored by the Joint Committee on Library Work as a Career." *Wilson Library Bulletin*. 31: 63-74. Sept. 1956. Aimed at recruitment for the profession but has many good ideas for recruitment for the individual library.

4. Some libraries, e.g., Richmond, Ind., and Dallas, Tex., have offered free work-study programs in summer to selected high school students, partly to secure competent pages and partly to interest them in the profession. See Robert H. Dumas. "Dallas Program Promotes Interest in Librarianship." *Library Journal*. 85: 812-815. Feb. 15, 1960.

5. The situation is remarkably similar in the case of college teachers; see Lloyd S.

Woodburne. *Faculty Personnel Policies in Higher Education*. 201 p. 1950. Harper. p. 3-4.

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7. Walter V. Bingham and B. V. Moore. *How to Interview*. 4th ed. 277 p. 1959. Harper. Also Milton M. Mandell. *Employment Interviewing*. 103 p. 1956. (U.S. Civil Service Commission Personnel Methods Series no. 5.) Also Milton M. Mandell. *The Employment Interview*. (American Management Association Research Study no. 47.) Also Donald A. and Eleanor C. Laird. *Sizing Up People*. 270 p. 1951. McGraw-Hill. Also Paul M. Stokes. "How to Be Interviewed." *Factory Management and Maintenance*. 111: 84-89. Nov. 1953. Valuable suggestions to the interviewee.

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10. Beatrice J. Dvorak. "Occupational Testing: The Scientific Approach to Personnel Selection." U.S. Bureau of Employment Security, *Labor Market and Employment Security*. July 1956, p. 8-14.

11. Only in New York State is an examination required of all candidates for library certification; and the results of this examination are also used by the N. Y. State Department of Civil Service in filling public library vacancies. See A. L. A. Board on Personnel Administration BPA Notes. July 1956. mimeo. p. 7-8.

12. Bernard Schein. "Certification of Public Librarians in the United States." *A.L.A. Bulletin*, 50: 659-661. Nov. 1956.

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14. Six library personnel forms are reproduced in A.L.A. Board on Personnel Administration. *Personnel Organization and Procedure: A Manual Suggested for Use in Public Libraries*. 1952. A.L.A. Appendix I. p. 33-41. There are 125 pages of personnel forms in George D. Halscy. *Selecting and Inducting Employees: A Handbook of Tested Procedures*. 361 p. 1951. Harper.

CHAPTER 14

A Career Service in Librarianship

By a career service in librarianship is meant that the library secures and retains the services of the best-qualified persons among those available, and that they are assisted and motivated to grow in personal and professional stature and to make their maximum possible contribution to the work of the library, and to the profession. The career objective applies to all employees, including those not in the professional service, and in any kind of library. It depends not on the availability of large funds but rather on the desire and determination of the trustees and librarian. It is not accomplished by the stroke of a pen or indeed ever wholly achieved; it is a frame of mind, a conviction that each employee has a career ahead, a goal by which to determine policies and procedures. It is better applied altogether than only in part, but better in part than not at all. It represents a break with the traditional attitude in many public libraries but it is in agreement with the research, modern thinking, and to a large extent the actual practice in American business and industry.¹

For lack of space we cannot review the relevant developments in industry, as recounted in the enormous literature of industrial relations, some of it cited in Chapters 5, 6 and 10. Three main points summarize the present-day thinking on the role of the individual employee in a work setting.² First, each employee is an individual with his own strengths and limitations and his own unique personality; he wants to be recognized as such and be remembered by his own name. People are all alike in that they are all different. No employer can escape the problem of having to cope with at least the normal range of individual differences, and employee-centered supervision results in greater production than does work-centered supervision.

Second, no one likes to live or work by himself. People belong to groups; they want to be accepted by their fellows, and to have their approbation and support. Recognition of the social fabric so created is one of the great discoveries of this recent period of industrial research. This informal social system exists and is very powerful, as in holding down productivity sometimes and in frustrating official rules and orders; relatively little is known

as to how to utilize it purposively, save that management must somehow work within the limits imposed by its existence.

Third, everyone shares in the desire to be an effective member of the official team, to be a vital part of something larger than himself and of which he can be proud. When stimulated and recognized this is what develops in men a fierce loyalty—whether to the combat unit of an army or to the production group of a factory. People tend to be happiest and most productive in a work situation where they can contribute creatively within the limits of their ability in ways which are socially approved and appreciated.

WORKING CONDITIONS

Salaries

A public library seeking to recruit and retain outstanding employees has to pay salaries commensurate with those of other libraries, of other occupations requiring approximately the same training, and of other local employers. Otherwise, few applicants will show up and seldom a well-qualified one. Low salaries in libraries are responsible for the drab and inadequate personnel who in turn create in people's minds the characteristic image of a librarian. The problem should be attacked from both ends; salaries should be raised and every library should raise its level of acceptable work performance. Only the former is considered at this point.

Library salaries have always been low, largely because trustees and administrators failed to win public recognition of the value of library service, and partly because of the predominance of women as library employees. "Exploitation" is the word to describe the salaries long paid to custodians, library assistants and professional librarians. The continued shortage of librarians, more than anything else, has helped to improve starting salaries for library school graduates. In most cities they are not yet up to the salaries paid to school teachers, school librarians, and to members of many other professions with comparable education and experience. And teachers by and large earn less today than do other professional groups, and have gained less in purchasing power in the last fifty years than have most other occupations.³ In 1955 the median monthly salary of 8,808 professional librarians in public libraries was only about \$5 a week more than the average earnings of all production workers in manufacturing industries that year.⁴ Since most libraries fail to advance salaries for the middle and top ranks in even the same relative amounts as for starting salaries, experienced employees find themselves earning little more than newcomers and with hardly any range of possible increase.

The librarian should work out a sound salary plan and insist on its adop-

tion by the trustees and city officials, with periodic revision of the schedule in keeping with current conditions. A salary plan includes (a) a salary range, viz., a minimum salary, a maximum salary and designated intermediate steps for each grade of position as defined in the library's position classification plan; and (b) a set of rules for the application and operation of this salary schedule.⁹ Such a salary plan is to be preferred to a secret payroll and the resulting favoritism in paying different salaries for essentially the same work. The many thorny technical problems should be resolved in consultation with the whole staff or with staff representatives, preferably helped by an experienced personnel officer.

Should the maximum salary of one grade be less or more than the minimum of the next higher grade, and by how much? Usually the former is preferred, so that the promotion from one grade to another will mean an increase in salary. But in the higher grades of service where promotions will be few, and wherever the total salary range of a given grade is limited, an overlap in the salaries paid for positions in two adjoining grades is inevitable. Typically the annual increments are too small; they should be at least \$150 (equal to 7 cents an hour), and larger for the higher grades, so that they constitute a proportionate percentage increase of the minimum salary for the grade. How much difference should there be in the pay scale for different grades of positions? This depends on human judgment, the pressure of shortages and competition for certain types of skills. One good method is to establish a fair salary range for one or two key classes, e.g., junior professional librarian, and then work up and down the scale. It also turns on the number and amount of increments, and on whether salaries for different grades overlap.

Rules for the Salary Plan

To apply such a salary schedule, a set of rules should be drawn up in consultation with other staff members, be submitted to the board and city officials, and upon their approval be published for all to see. Besides definitions of terms, it should provide for periodic review of the salary schedule, for new appointments at the minimum salary of the grade in question (with exceptions permitted in unusual cases), and for the treatment of individuals whose present salary does not fall exactly into the salary steps of the new schedule. An important policy to incorporate concerns the basis on which salary increments will be granted, either automatically (as is generally true of teachers) or on the recommendation of the librarian as the result of service ratings or other judgments of individual efficiency. Any plan should recognize that some employees are better than others. Automatic increments (or even semi-automatic, i.e., to be granted unless vetoed) are far easier to administer than discretionary, but they discourage excel-

lence and lower the library's efficiency and morale. In addition, individual merit increases, longevity pay, and the requirement of continued academic study every five years or so to qualify for further increases should be included in the rules.

A salary schedule should be reviewed annually, desirably as part of a long-term (five-year) plan, and necessarily just before the next year's budget is decided. First, every present position and its performance needs scrutiny, to assure that every dollar is well spent at present; it will often be possible by work simplification to divert the time of present higher-paid persons to more profitable effort. Funds may be saved by using better supervision and work assignments to reduce the total number of positions, especially by closing small inefficient branches. Inevitably additional funds will be needed because public demands increase. There is only one way to get them—ask for them, justify the request and fight for them. Head librarians too often fail in this elementary duty—to design the best possible presentation of the need, defend it vigorously before the trustees and persuade them to use their every ounce of political strength with government officials and tax bodies to get the money needed for salary increases. Obviously when a city raises the salaries of all governmental employees the trustees should see to it that the library employees are included as they surely will be in any across-the-board cuts.

One main argument can be used—even though city officials try to brush it off: the comparison of the library's present salaries with those of local firms and other libraries. In most cities the actual average salary of library employees is low enough to shock many people; library typists and other clerical workers seldom have as good a pay scale as in other local offices. Sources of data on salaries paid by other public libraries include the latest benchmark study of the national scene,⁶ the annual statistics issues of many state library bulletins,⁷ the annual compilation by the Enoch Pratt Free Library of *Salary Statistics for Large Public Libraries*,⁸ the annual survey of salaries received by library school graduates,⁹ the pool of salary data of forty-three public libraries, maintained by the Detroit Public Library,¹⁰ *The Municipal Year Book*,¹¹ and *Public Library Abstracts*.¹² The National Education Association conducts comprehensive surveys of teachers' salaries every two years.¹³ For local salaries of clerical and nonprofessional employees, see the studies of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics as published in its bulletins or in the *Monthly Labor Review*, and the salary surveys by the National Office Management Association.¹⁴ A survey of salaries paid throughout the community to persons in various standard positions may have been made by the local chamber of commerce or manufacturers association or by the state government. Best of all would be a salary survey done by and for the local units of government; it is almost sure to lead to salary increases for public library employees.

A salary schedule may be improved by raising the minimum on one or more grades or raising the maximum, increasing the number or size of increments, adding a cost-of-living bonus or longevity step increases, etc. There are ways to increase average salaries without directly changing the salary schedule, e.g., reclassifying positions from one grade to another, providing for automatic movement from one grade to another (as of junior librarians), reducing the work week (though this can only match what is generally accepted locally) or adding fringe benefits (as increased travel funds). But real take-home pay needs to be increased absolutely and relatively, now and in the future, to keep up with inflation, and to compete with salaries of other occupations. A staff of any quality or spirit will not lie down and accept local difficulties in achieving salary goals as absolving the librarian and trustees of their responsibility, especially if other city employees with the same or lesser qualifications are better paid.

Tenure

Formal guarantee of tenure or of employment beyond the probationary period is common for teachers but unusual in a public library. Under civil service, removal can only be done as provided by the rules. Not enough library employees, however, are dismissed for inefficiency, and few without justification. The attitude is sometimes found that, because salaries are low, ineffective employees will not be dismissed; this means that the low salaries paid are no saving but are largely wasted.

A basic desire of people at work is to be assured of continued employment and to be protected from personal favoritism or caprice, politics or other factors unrelated to merit. Several librarians have been victims of controversy over ideas and censorship. The A. L. A. has a number of good statements aimed at preventing dismissal or other punishment for personal opinions or professional treatment of unpopular or controversial subjects.¹⁸ On the other hand little is done to disturb the tenure of employees who are *not* competent. Permanent tenure for such persons is costly. It is contrary to the spirit of the career service idea, even though the public schools and the civil service are still more subject to this difficulty than are public libraries, because their tenure system is established by law and procedures for removing an employee are complex and almost unworkable. The informal system of tenure in public libraries should be retained and cherished, precisely because of the flexibility it permits. But to it should be added provision for systematically recording observations of each employee's efficiency (see "Service Ratings" below), and a stated policy of separating from the employ of the library any person incapable of maintaining reasonable efficiency. Only the trustees may dismiss a library employee, but this they should be prepared to do on recommendation of the librarian, supported by recorded facts.

Fringe Benefits

Factors other than salary may have direct monetary value. Fringe benefits of a generation ago favored white collar workers over industrial workers. Unionization and other influences have put blue collar workers far ahead of office and professional personnel in regard to fringe benefits.¹⁶ Some fringe benefits have a double effect on compensation because of their relationship to the Federal income tax. A hospital insurance premium paid by the employer is worth not only its face value to the employee but also the additional income tax the latter would have to pay if his salary had been increased and he had paid the premium himself. As a rule of thumb, fringe benefits represent from 15 to 20 per cent of the annual total outlay for salaries.¹⁷ Over the long run all American workers can expect increased fringe benefits; public library employees have to catch up with other workers.

The forty-hour work week is now standard in public libraries, and some are beginning to require less. The coffee break, approximating ten minutes for each half day of work, is well entrenched and perhaps justified if used to relieve fatigue. The five-day week is also standard now, but most public libraries expect employees to work at least one or two nights a week without extra pay. Overtime work in libraries is rarely paid for directly (let alone by time and a half); usually the employee is granted compensatory time off. The number of paid holidays ranges more widely; six is the usual minimum.

Paid vacation, once the distinguishing prerogative of white collar workers, is now part of the compensation of almost all American employees. In public libraries, four weeks' paid vacation is standard for professional librarians, and two weeks for other library employees. Some libraries require each employee to take his whole vacation in the summer months when reader demands are at an ebb; others permit taking vacation at any time of the year, with the advance approval of the supervisor. Leaves of absence without pay are usually available to library staff members, but not leave with pay except for a few days to attend professional meetings. Increasingly staff members are helped by the library's travel funds, especially if they are serving on committees of state and national associations. Transportation paid for by the library is exempt from the Federal tax of 10 per cent.

In health and welfare, library fringe benefits are weakest of all. Paid sick leave is common, usually at most for one day a month and cumulative for a few years at least, and not to be used except for serious illness. About two-thirds of all American workers now have hospital and life insurance by virtue of their employment,¹⁸ but such protection is missing almost completely in libraries; in most cases, it will require authorization by state law. Credit unions are usually available in the larger cities, often through organizations of municipal employees; as yet they touch only a minority of

all public libraries. Severance pay, bonus and profit-sharing plans, and other such benefits are not found in libraries.

Retirement

Today most employees in all occupations are assured some continued income after retirement. And most public libraries, except the very small ones, have some provision for staff retirement; in any library without reasonably adequate retirement benefits, the trustees and librarian should press for a change.¹⁹

Librarians tried to establish their own private retirement plan in the 1930's.²⁰ But for all state and local government workers, including librarians, the great breakthrough came with the development, within the last twenty-five years, of statewide retirement systems for public employees, found now in many states.²¹ A majority of all public library employees are covered by them. The library or the local unit of government applies to join the plan. It then pays in (a) the deductions from employees' current pay; (b) its matching contributions and pro-rata share of administrative expenses; and (c) the annual amount necessary to cover the prior service of those on the payroll when the plan was adopted, so that they can secure a full pension when they retire based on their total length of employment. Retirement benefits will vary with rates of contributions, age of retirement, the scope and variety of benefits offered, etc.

Such an actuarially sound retirement system is more expensive than generally realized. To keep solvent, most state plans offer relatively modest benefits (say around 25 per cent of final average salary), and their purchasing power has been steadily reduced by inflation. As a result, the second breakthrough in retirement benefits for public employees came in 1954 when Congress amended the Federal Social Security Act, opening to them the Old-Age and Survivors Insurance program. This is conditional on each state adopting appropriate legislation²² and on a vote of the employees concerned. The combination of social security and of a state or local retirement plan will in general result in a pension of from a third to a half of the final average salary; for this, the library's payments are or soon will be about 10 per cent of total salary expenditures. Still to be desired are interstate agreements to make it possible to transfer pension and retirement credits from state to state.

The individual library has one key decision to make—the age of compulsory retirement. Age sixty-five is the usually accepted point for compulsory retirement.²³ Reduced Federal social security benefits are available even at age sixty-two, and they are payable in full at sixty-five. Evidence indicates that loss or retention of ability is not measured always by chronological age, and that forced retirement has adverse effects on many people whose lives are focused on their jobs, unless they are oriented in advance to change

their interests and habits. Life expectancy is increasing (at sixty-five one can expect to live another twelve or fifteen years), and the number who are sixty-five or over is becoming such a large percentage of the total that their support will be burdensome unless at least the most competent can continue working.

But on the average people do begin to lose their vigor by sixty-five, and become more conservative and less willing to experiment. Since older people tend to hold higher-level positions, their failure to retire blocks promotion of younger staff members and reduces the effectiveness of the library to solve new problems. Furthermore the usual public library retirement system makes it impossible for an employee within ten or fifteen years of retirement to consider taking another job, though that might be better for both him and the library, since he would lose the benefit of his employer's contributions to the retirement fund. General failure of libraries to dismiss ineffective staff members calls for a compulsory cut-off date to limit the time these hidden pensioners may linger. Provision is often made to continue the services of extra-valuable nonexecutive persons, recommended by the librarian to the board, on a year-to-year basis, perhaps for less than full time or in a less exacting position. But any librarian reluctant to retire at sixty-five, as a precedent for others, does his library a disservice and deprives it of the vigor and freshness of viewpoint likely to be contributed by a younger successor.

EMPLOYEE DEVELOPMENT

Job Enlargement

A main ingredient for an effective career service is systematic development of each employee's potential abilities, by such means as job enlargement, service ratings, in-service training and personal adjustment. The first step is to discover the individual's combination of qualities and abilities, and then to see that his work assignments give him a chance to perform ever more difficult and more responsible duties. This helps satisfy a basic psychological need for growth. Each employee should in time learn something about the jobs done by others in his work unit, as by a transfer, and this is good insurance against the sudden loss of a staff member.

A transfer of an individual from one position to another in a given grade usually means some alteration in duties but no necessary change in pay. It may be initiated by the librarian, perhaps to give an employee a chance to make a better adjustment on the new job; by the supervisor of a vacant position, as to secure someone with special skills; by the employee's present supervisor, to be relieved of someone who is not effective; or by the employee himself, to secure new experience or to be located more conven-

iently. Transfers are often neglected as a method of employee development and tend to be used only for those of mediocre performance and to encourage them to leave. When a vacancy occurs, consideration should be given first to any present employee holding a position in the same grade of service who desires the transfer, provided he meets the qualifications desired for the vacancy.

Promotions

A promotion means reassigning an individual from a position in a given grade to another position in a higher grade, usually involving a change in duties²⁴ and better pay. It is the best form of job enlargement for an employee of competence; it benefits the individual and the library. To what extent should vacancies be filled by appointment from outside the staff or by promotion from within? Promotion from within is the epitome of a career service; it can result in a chain reaction of promotions down the line, and it has a powerful effect on staff morale. Women librarians continue to work after marriage in ever larger numbers and even after they have children, and the long-range prospects for promotion are ever more important to them. Furthermore, it reduces training time and eliminates the hiatus while a new person learns his way around.²⁵

On the other hand, appointment from the outside tends to introduce new ideas, and is necessary if there is no qualified person on the staff. In the history of almost every library there are times when key positions are better filled by appointments of new people with outstanding leadership qualities than by promotion of people who are passable but not able to push the library ahead. Appointment to an upper-level position should be made in anticipation of what will be forthcoming in the future and not as a reward for what was done in the past. Clearly, to promote from within requires the presence of competent persons with growth potential, in lower positions on the staff. As long as a high standard of selection is maintained, so that each present staff member is competing for the position not only with his colleagues but with people outside the staff, the policy of promotion from within is desirable and is recommended.

Should the basis of promotion be merit alone or length of service? Seniority does not necessarily bring to the top those persons best qualified for promotion, and should not be a major factor in determining promotions. All vacancies above the entering level should be announced to the staff, inviting applications but stating also that the position will not necessarily be filled by promotion. Personnel records are rarely complete, up-to-date, or well-organized for this purpose even in large libraries,²⁶ and careful study of the whole staff should be made in the case of each vacancy to find the person who will most strengthen the library at the given point. When an obvi-

ous candidate is passed over for another, he should be given an explanation of the reasons.

Shall only present members of a given department be considered for a vacancy in the department, or shall all persons be eligible who hold positions in the grade below that of the vacancy? While the obvious line of promotion is certainly from assistant head to headship of a department, the basic principle remains: every person promoted should be so selected because he appears to be better qualified for the position than any of his colleagues or anyone outside the staff. Too many professional librarians can secure promotion only by taking an administrative position, when they really do not like nor are they fitted for administrative duties as well as they are for some other aspect of the work. If in general they could be promoted only to the one position immediately superior to their own, that would be a negation of the spirit of a career service.

In choosing the person to be promoted, of those who meet the minimum qualifications, the informed judgment of the supervisor of the vacant position should weigh heavily, supplemented by the opinions of selected other supervisors and of the librarian, as discussed in Chapter 13, and by the record of the various candidates, including service ratings received and in-service training taken. The probationary period is important and should be used, when the promotion involves duties substantially different from those previously performed.

A library's professional prestige, and specifically its drawing power in recruitment of staff, is greatly influenced by whether appointees to upper-level positions are outstanding people or only mediocre. Promotion from within is a desirable part of a career service, if it results in the promotion of those best qualified of all who are available. Every experienced library administrator knows that the search for people to promote has to be continual and far and wide, and that the higher the level of a given position, the more difficult and important this search becomes. A good librarian tries to have an understudy for every key staff member including himself.

Service Ratings

By service ratings is meant the periodic assessment by a supervisor, in a prescribed fashion, of an employee's job performance and efficiency, with comments on his potential ability. Sometimes called merit rating, its application in libraries has been less controversial than in teaching but is no less difficult. Unless an effective system is worked out, or if ratings are not made at all, superficial, subjective and possibly biased opinions will be used by supervisors and the librarian, as in judging a new employee's work, deciding whether a staff member is to be promoted or recommending an employee for a merit increase. The problem is not whether but how to rate work

performance fairly. Most people want to know where they stand with their supervisors. Many methods and forms have been developed,²⁷ including the 1948 A. L. A. "Personnel Service Rating Report," still available for purchase.²⁸ It is possible and even desirable to devise a local system and form, after studying some of the literature on service ratings.²⁹

Service ratings are not such valid measures of performance that important decisions should be made solely from them; the ratings should be only a part of the total data considered. Their chief value in fact lies in their use for counseling the individual employee, in letting him know where he stands and in helping him to improve. A rating every six months is sufficient even for new employees, and annually or less often for employees of long standing. Mutual discussion by all who will make the ratings will help to reduce the wide differences of individual supervisors. Any service rating plan should require that the rating report be shown to and discussed with the employee. Supervisors are reluctant to make objective ratings, and then have to show them to the employee. But the worker can benefit only by discussing the details of the report on his work with his supervisor. The interview should not stress his weaknesses and limitations—that is discouraging; it should be a constructive, good-spirited stocktaking of his work, with suggested ways to improve it. Both parties will feel encouraged when a series of interviews shows progress and successful adjustment. From these counseling interviews the wise supervisor can learn much about each assistant and much about his own effectiveness as a supervisor.³⁰ He may be courageous enough to let his assistants rate him, anonymously, as a supervisor.

In-Service Training

In-service training, offered to employees on matters of direct practical concern with their work on paid time and without cost to the employee, has become a standard practice in many public libraries, and is discussed at length in Chapter 16. In-service training can take many different forms other than the traditional class or group with the supervisor as instructor. The library's staff manual and staff news bulletin and current library magazines are in-service training devices, as are committees, special projects, experiments, tours of branches or departments, staff meetings, discussion groups and planned job rotation for new professional employees.³¹ A public library of twenty-five employees or more should expect to conduct one or more training programs for its staff all the time. Training classes for apprentices or for persons trying to qualify for employment have largely been abandoned,³² because of the expense involved, the difficulty of finding candidates and the turnover. Today many libraries in larger cities arrange for library schools to give library science courses by extension, and have per-

suaded local educational institutions to develop courses for nonprofessional library assistants.

Personal Grievance Adjustment

As long as people work together, some will have real or fancied grievances and unusual problems, in contrast to others who carry on happily and effectively. One's colleagues are human and are therefore different one from another. The librarian needs to get to know each one to try to understand him, and to treat him with respect for the integrity of his personality. As part of a career service, a person of stature and judgment should be designated in each library to whom employees in trouble or with a grievance can talk and get help, someone willing and able to make himself readily available, to keep confidential what he is told in confidence, and to offer a sympathetic ear without trying to run other persons' lives. It is a basic assumption that the librarian will deal with his colleagues honestly and fairly and in the best interests of the library and of all concerned. He will be interested in any situation which leads a member of the staff to feel that he has been abused or unfairly treated, and he will try to correct it. The tensions of today often grow from a misunderstanding, or a personality conflict, but sometimes there is real injustice. The first step is to uncover the difficulty and to have every employee know that he can go to a qualified person for a hearing, even if the source of his difficulty lies outside his job; people's work life and private life are very much interdependent, both for the normal person and the neurotic. Some aspects of this subject are discussed from the supervisor's viewpoint in Chapter 16.

The library may have a complaint against a staff member, for malicious gossiping, for continual inability to get along well with his colleagues, for repeated tardiness or other poor work habits, or for other more or less serious reasons. An interview should be held by the appropriate supervisor after reviewing the facts available, and considering the possible alternatives. One objective is to seek with the individual the cause of his poor behavior and to find possible corrective actions or factors, with the intent to salvage the individual and to retain his services, if they can be made minimally acceptable. It may prove important to give an official reprimand or warning that failure to improve his conduct or work performance will lead to some designated action, such as a transfer, demotion or dismissal.²³

Then there is the person who makes less than an acceptable contribution to the work of the library; even doing his best is not good enough. Perhaps he should never have been hired or promoted, but there he is. Often the employee's work has declined gradually over the years; it would be impossible to dismiss him after years of service to the library and with no other source of income. Such a person (and what if it is the librarian?)

should be transferred to work where he can least slow down the library's operation. The key factor in the adjustment of a person to his job would appear to be the degree of challenge or motivation which his work offers to his unique combination of talents and limitations. One possibility then is to seek from the individual his own self-knowledge as to what he likes and wants to do; possibly a transfer to that can be arranged. Or the situation may result from the discouragement and frustration of long years of failure to advance; job enlargement is a possible help. Business and industry, and other professions too, have this problem. All of them have created jobs for people who need to be moved out of the main stream of activity but cannot be dismissed. One test of a chief librarian is his ability to solve such a personal problem with creative imagination and courage. And the many different kinds of cases call for almost as many different types of approaches, e.g., the beginner, the devoted but average worker, the older employee who is beginning to slow down,³⁴ the person who is not promotable,³⁵ the problem employee.

On the other hand there is the equally important but more pleasant obligation on each librarian to assist in the personal adjustment of his colleagues by an appreciative word for unusual ability and good work. It is sad but true that so often the cases of poor adjustment of staff members necessarily get the head's attention, but he has to remind himself to identify and seek out those who are doing a good job. Everyone needs and responds to recognition. Staff morale is in effect a group judgment of the personal adjustment of its members. It reflects the extent to which they are happy in their work, and feel at one with one another and with the library. Morale is essential for successful performance, but it is not easy to secure, and certainly not by any few or simple methods or devices. Morale is the result of many actions and of intangible relationships, such as devotion and zeal in the work shown by a library's leaders and communicated to all the others. Like happiness, staff morale is not something which can be sought for and created directly. It is not related to wealth or ease of living. Often it arises and grows precisely because of success in overcoming hurdles, and is evident only after the circumstances which occasion it are past.³⁶

Some aspects of personal adjustment apply especially to the professional librarians on the staff. Their potential contribution is great, but they also need some special consideration with regard to time and encouragement for professional reading, activity in professional associations, study and writing, and professional growth in general. They have an obligation to observe in letter and spirit the librarians' code of ethics,³⁷ and to give unstintingly of their physical and mental abilities in the maintenance and improvement of the library's service program. But they need the unceasing support of the trustees and of the librarian in securing an adequate salary schedule, all the usual fringe benefits and desirable working conditions, and

an opportunity to participate actively, even more than other staff members, in the long-term development of the library.

DEMOCRATIC ADMINISTRATION

Much of the talk about democratic administration usually means little more than that the administrator asks the opinions of some subordinates before he makes a major decision. This is only consultative administration. The acid test of democratic administration is whether the chief shares with his colleagues the power to make decisions. This subject was discussed in Chapter 6, and only a few points will be brought out here, as relating to a career service.⁸⁸

Democratic administration assumes and requires a free flow of relevant information through normal channels. People who are to share in making decisions must have access to the same and to all the needed facts, as by printed personnel rules, a staff bulletin and reports on board meetings. Just as important but more difficult is to get a free flow of information upward, since people tend not to tell the chief what he won't like to hear. As a result he should be sensitive to the signals of stress and trouble, such as the grapevine.

Most people will like democratic administration, and profit from it, and improve the library's service, if the pace is not too swift. One good way to begin is to delegate authority for routine decisions to the lowest effective level. This not only relieves the work load of the librarian and the department heads but builds up staff confidence and judgment derived from experience. Personnel policies and working conditions constitute another area in which decisions are of importance to all and the viewpoints of all need to be considered. Policies for the operation and long-range planning of the library should also be based on the thinking of at least the professional staff. This helps prepare them for supervisory and administrative positions, and enables the chief to make a stronger recommendation to the board when a given proposal has the endorsement of the staff and incorporates their views and experience.

Not that democratic administration is easy or infallible. It requires patience and skill from the librarian, as well as a conviction that it's worth it; and it takes time. It cannot be used to dodge all decision making or the other responsibilities of leadership. Staff members have to become accustomed to new ways of thinking too, and to learn that they may disagree with the chief without penalty. The department head or librarian may even have to learn a new technique: how to listen, and like it, to frank statements and questions in an open meeting, without wincing or embarrassment when they conflict with his own ideas or previous decisions or seem

to reflect on his wisdom and ability. An effective staff organization helps in this regard, and is a basic necessity for democratic administration. The end result of the process can be said to be administration by objectives and not by orders.

EVALUATING THE LIBRARY'S PERSONNEL SITUATION

Written Statements of Personnel Policy

The objective of personnel administration is to secure for the library a staff notably qualified as to educational background, personality, ability and efficiency, and devoted to improving the library's service to its community. How can a library's performance in this regard be measured? To evaluate anything there has to be a yardstick or a measuring device to ascertain whether the X factor in question exceeds or falls short of the standard.³⁹ In this case the yardstick with which to compare actual practice is a statement of local personnel policies officially adopted. If it has been stated policy to fill upper-level positions by promotion from within, whenever there is no better candidate available outside the staff, the percentage of such vacancies filled by promotion is easily calculated; what is more important, and can be done at least subjectively, is to compute the percentage of such appointees year by year who were outstanding and the percentage who were not. Similarly a judgment can be made as to the quality and ability of new professional, clerical and custodial staff members each year, to compare with what should be the policy—to discover and recruit highly-qualified and able employees at entering levels. A written statement of library personnel policies is essential for orientation of new employees and as a base for developing democratic administration. The preparation of such a statement brings up many questions in any library on which staff discussion will be profitable.⁴⁰ Without such a statement of policies one can hardly judge to what extent they are being observed.

Data on Turnover and Sick Leave

It helps to keep data on some measurable factors, such as turnover. Separation and accession rates per year are calculated by averaging the number of nontemporary positions on the library's payroll four or more times in the year and dividing that figure into the number of employees with permanent appointment who left or joined the staff. Separation rates can be analyzed to identify trouble spots, e.g., as to cause of separation (preventable or non-preventable), by library agency or department, and by the main groups of positions, such as professional librarians or junior library assistants.

What is a desirable rate of turnover? American industry has had an

average separation rate of over 40 per cent a year in recent years;⁴¹ as far as the few available data indicate, public library personnel turnover rates have in recent years been around 20-25 per cent, very similar to the Federal Government's turnover rate.⁴² Even this is above the suggested optimum of 15 per cent.⁴³ Turnover is expensive, \$200 to \$500 per separation and mostly in hidden costs,⁴⁴ and high turnover is disastrous to good library service. The complete absence of turnover is also an unfavorable sign since it means that there are no vacancies to be filled by promotion and no influx of new people with new ideas. But for a long time the problem has been that of too high a turnover.

In general the record of paid sick leave taken by staff members provides an indication of morale and of job satisfaction; often there are comparable figures on sick leave available for local government offices or business firms, but not usually for other libraries. However any library can compare its own turnover and sick leave rates in one year with the same data for other years, and get an indication as to whether its performance in this respect is improving or declining.

Exit Interviews

A third practical approach to evaluating personnel administration, and the administration of the library, is through an exit interview by the librarian or personnel officer with every person leaving the employ of the library.⁴⁵ If the employee is encouraged to speak freely of his work experiences, much of value can be learned about trouble spots in the library's personnel program. Exit interviews serve other purposes too, such as a routine review of necessary steps in effecting the separation, giving the employee a last chance to ask questions and make suggestions, providing some official and personal recognition of his leaving the library's employ, and perhaps even persuading him not to leave.

The Ultimate Criterion

It is an assumption that good personnel administration will result in maintaining and improving the library's program of community service. That is the ultimate criterion and it is not easy to judge objectively. Though causality is difficult to establish and impossible to prove, the librarian and ultimately the trustees need to review from time to time whether the leadership, the devotion, the morale, the effectiveness of the staff as a whole and of each department are improving or not. Is there a goodly proportion of the staff who are recognized locally and by their colleagues in other libraries as outstanding in ability and character? In the usual library there are some down-to-earth criteria for the everyday rating of the staff by

the public which it serves: Do readers, especially adult readers, enjoy coming to the library partly because they respect and admire the staff members and like to do business with them? Is there even one, or are there maybe a dozen staff members who are looked up to by the community as knowing a great deal about the contents and qualities of books, and as personifying the public's recognition of the high cultural value of the library and its materials? Is the community really proud of the library staff, not merely in a vague way, but because when each reader has come for materials, for information, for help he has found able, devoted staff members in whatever department he has looked for them?

It may be that a new and different approach in personnel administration should be taken, since it is easy to become absorbed in routines and techniques, and to neglect the continuing search for outstanding employees, even before positions become vacant. The responsibility for not losing sight of the end goal is primarily that of the librarian.

FOOTNOTES AND SPECIAL MATERIAL

1. Leonard D. White. *Government Career Service*. 99 p. 1935. Univ. of Chicago Press. An excellent statement.

2. See Edward C. Bursk, ed. *Human Relations for Management: The New Perspective*. 372 p. 1956. Harper. 17 articles from the *Harvard Business Review*. Also Henry C. Lindgren. *Effective Leadership in Human Relations*. 287 p. 1954. Hermitage House. Also Chapter 11, "The Theory of Industrial Democracy." In William H. Knowles. *Personnel Management: A Human Relations Approach*. 488 p. 1955. American Book Co. p. 225-45. Also Thomas G. Spates. *Human Values Where People Work*. 246 p. 1960. Harper. \$4.50. Traces progress for 45 years as to feelings and experiences of all levels of workers.

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9. Donald E. and Ruth B. Strout. "Higher Salaries, More Vacancies." *Library Journal*. 86: 2266-2272. June 15, 1961.

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11. "Table VII. Salaries of Selected Municipal Officials in Cities Over 10,000 Population: 1961." In *The Municipal Year Book: 1961*. International City Managers' Association. 1961. p. 156-158.

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17. The money value of fringe benefits rose steadily from 15% of payroll in 1947 to 25% in 1959, in the case of 108 companies surveyed 7 times in the 13 years. See *Fringe Benefits: 1959*. 1960. Chamber of Commerce of the United States. p. 28-29.

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22. By 1958, 33 states had passed such laws which directly included public libraries. See Julius J. Marke. *op. cit.*

23. Of 1,137 cities of over 10,000 population each, 586 (52%) have a compulsory retirement age—70 in 364 cities and 65 in 203. See *The Municipal Year Book: 1959*. International City Managers' Association. 1959. p. 164.

24. An exception occurs when a given position is reclassified to a higher grade, in

recognition of substantial changes already made in the duties of that position; the individual holding that position is then officially promoted to the reclassified position.

25. *Building Better Promotion Programs*. Personnel Management Series. No. 2; rev. ed., 34 p. 1958. U.S. Civil Service Commission. One of the few good statements on the subject. Four informed and experienced administrators answer the question "To What Extent Should Executive Positions Be Filled from Outside?" In *Personnel Administration*, 20: 46-49, Jan.-Feb. 1957.

26. See statement by L. Quincy Mumford on the decision to continue posting notices of vacant positions, in *Library of Congress Information Bulletin*, Aug. 20, 1956, p. 443-44.

27. Such as recording critical and characteristic incidents in the daily work of an employee; see John C. Flanagan and Robert K. Burns. "The Employee Performance Record: A New Appraisal and Development Tool." *Harvard Business Review*, 33: 95-102, Sept.-Oct. 1955.

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29. M. Joseph Dooher and Vivienne Marquis. *Rating Employee and Supervisory Performance: A Manual of Merit-Rating Techniques*. American Management Association, 192 p. 1950. Also Virgil M. Rogers, ed. "Merit Rating" for Teachers? Syracuse University Press, 79 p. 1959. Includes a "Selected Bibliography" with 100 references. The important reference in library literature is Edwin B. Colburn, ed. *Personnel Rating Procedures of American Libraries*, the report of the A.L.A. Division of Cataloging and Classification's Committee on Administration, available for loan on microfilm from A.L.A. Headquarters Library. For a summary, see his "Personnel Rating in American Libraries." *Journal of Cataloging and Classification*, 7: 14-16, Winter 1951. Also Philip E. Hagerty. "Evaluation of Personnel." In Wayne S. Yenawine, ed. *Library Evaluation*. Syracuse University Press, 1959, p. 21-29. For evolution of Enoch Pratt Free Library's Employee Progress Report form, see A.L.A. Board on Personnel Administration. B.P.A. Notes, Nov. 1956, par. 2-6.

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40. For an example of such a document, see Enoch Pratt Free Library. *Personnel Procedures and Regulations*. 35 p. mimeo. 1949. Baltimore. See also Ruth M. White, ed. *Public Library Policies—General and Specific*. *The Public Library Reporter*. No. 9. 1960. A.L.A. p. 33-73.

41. See labor turnover tables in "Current Labor Statistics" section of each issue of *Monthly Labor Review*. U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

42. See p. 82 of the U.S. Civil Service Commission. *Annual Report: 1953/54*. 181 p. 1954.

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CHAPTER 15

The Department Head

NOTE. This and the following chapter, on supervision, form a pair, and apply equally to the branch librarian. Though frequent reference is made to public service departments, most of the material in these two chapters applies in nonpublic departments, which are of equal importance. Their special management problems are discussed in Chapters 27 to 33.

The department head provides the element of leadership which develops an effective staff and service for some unit.¹⁻³ A good department head raises the standard of the whole library. He finds ways to build the department. He helps to select and evaluate his personnel. He assigns the work among assistants, supervising and developing the performance of each. He encourages good work and corrects shortcomings, thus fostering high morale not only within the department but in the whole staff. He encourages assistants to increase their knowledge of books and stimulates them to participate in professional activities. He is constantly aware of the quality and quantity of service given by each assistant and the resulting degree of satisfaction of the public. He considers methods and techniques in use elsewhere, and finds ways to improve his own. He serves as liaison between the director and the departmental staff.

A department head develops, both in himself and in assistants, the skills, patience and poise necessary for reference work, departmental routines, correspondence, book selection, etc., without being disturbed by constant interruptions and always emphasizing reader service as his primary goal. A department head must develop extra-library contacts, meet with community leaders and talk to local groups.

When a newly appointed department head arrives from another library, he finds a new group of colleagues, a new institution with its own traditions, policies, staff attitudes, public relations, its clientele and community, its resources, its organization, and its unique way of handling the daily succession of questions and problems. If he has been promoted from within the library, he will try to see his new position in this broader setting. He can

profitably study recent reports of the library and the department, and recent administrative notices and memos, if the library is large enough to use them. His own staff members can tell him much in an hour or two. One of them can go through the department's various parts with him and help him get his bearings. He needs to know the character of his clientele and his community. He will do well to transfer his affections from previous environments and to become an appreciative citizen in the new town. By so doing he can give and gain more pleasure in relationships with his colleagues. He will resist the temptation to settle down into a little fenced-in kingdom of his own. He can grow intellectually and spiritually if he dedicates himself to this larger purpose, rather than being concerned with personal prestige and advancement.

After six or eight months how does he measure up on these essential points: development of subordinates, use of tact and discretion, planning of operations, correction of undesirable attitudes and behavior and willingness to assume responsibility?

DEPARTMENTAL OBJECTIVES

If the library has general objectives and a planned program of action and service, the department's objectives and program will logically be an extension and refinement of these into its special field. Whether a "department" is large or small, it benefits by a simple written statement of its goals, its scope of subject or activities, its relationship to the library as a whole, and to any similar department or enterprise in the community, as discussed in Chapter 2. What do the librarian and trustees expect from the department? What proportion of potential users are now reached? Does the collection neglect any occupational, civic, cultural and other major needs of the population? Often overlooked is the cumulative ability of a department to multiply its service both in quantity and in quality, i.e., growth in circulation and reference statistics, along with greater intensity, specialization and significance as to the books it lends, the questions it looks up, the satisfaction of the readers it serves.

The departmental policy statement covering such points as the foregoing should also define its autonomy. To what extent may the department head and its members make decisions on choice of personnel, assignment of work, outgoing correspondence, which represents the library regardless of who signs it, selection of books and other materials, service to its public and to different categories of readers? To what extent is each worker to be supervised by and answer to the department head or to an administrative assistant? To what extent may the department head, with the counsel of his staff, make decisions, take the initiative, represent his department in the community, without reporting every little thing to someone higher up?

Some of these points are hard to define in writing but there should be clear understanding among those concerned.

LEADERSHIP AT THE DEPARTMENTAL LEVEL

Paramount considerations in choosing a department head are his ability to lead and direct, to develop a closely knit, happy staff, to push things forward, to promote service to the entire community, to set goals for his staff, to impart enthusiasm and conviction, and to develop assistants to full realization of their own abilities. The department head is more than a top assistant. He has moved to the position in which he is to be the initiator, leader, guide, philosopher and friend to his staff and to as many readers as he can reach; the encourager and developer of his colleagues; and the improver of services to the public for whom the library is operated. Often the position has been filled by promoting a first assistant, or by taking a good routine performer in some other specialized service in the library, perhaps someone conscientious and apt at carrying on the daily work but lacking in the overall viewpoint and capacity just defined. Unless such a person takes himself in hand to develop this leadership, the department is likely to run along in a mediocre fashion, and those responsible for the appointment or promotion will have betrayed the library's interest. Better to leave the headship open, and run a few months with only an acting head, than to rush, or be pushed, into appointing someone who lacks the training, experience and above all the ability.

Leadership of a departmental staff should be a fascinating assignment characterized by friendly, frank but not overfamiliar relationships. For example, the head needs to correct undesirable attitudes and conduct. An open-minded department head encourages suggestions and constructive criticism as discussed in Chapter 6. To share their confidence he will keep in touch with each staff member and his work so that all feel free to discuss with the head and seek his help on questions and choices. When this mutual relationship has become established, he begins to build up their self-reliance and ability to make decisions and take responsibility for more difficult problems. The head thereby frees himself from much encumbering detail.

Chapter 16 discusses supervision, an essential function of department heads. But here we take up the staff work which precedes supervision, i.e., setting up objectives and viewpoints, planning, organizing and assigning work, and giving initial instructions. This problem in most libraries is greatly influenced by the fact that few departments include more than a dozen or a score of assistants. Probably 75 per cent of circulation, reference, processing and children's departments have fewer than ten staff members. Calculations from a 1960 statistical table for large libraries indicate that

even for cities of 300,000 and upward there is an average of only about ten workers per department head.⁴ Only in the very largest cities and regional systems does one find more than two or three departments with as many as forty or fifty workers. As few appointees come within a few weeks or even months of each other, the training has to be given all over again to each new arrival, and it consumes precious time. These figures emphasize the fact that the library department head's administrative attention is usually concentrated on a comparatively small group. He should be all the more able to do justice to supervision and development, and to instruct on subjects and materials, based on his greater knowledge and experience. This may not be easy for a new head who finds that most of his staff are older or have been on the scene longer than he.

The literature of management and supervision is largely concerned with much larger groups; there is little written on directing small groups having close professional relationships. In the case of college and library school graduates it involves common aims and ideals, often strongly felt and shared by the whole group. Many heads are therefore reluctant to act as real instructors, supervisors and correctors. This deprives assistants of the understanding guidance which they not only need but crave if they are in earnest.

ADMINISTRATIVE RELATIONSHIPS

The administrative relationships of the department head include those with the librarian and with other department heads. These relationships are discussed in the following sections.

The Department Head's Relationship to the Librarian

New department heads who failed to inquire into the matter are often upset to find they can decide nothing of importance without reporting upward. On the other hand a new department head who has not had much experience in making decisions and directing others may feel overwhelmed and adrift on an uncharted sea of choices.

These two extremes are fortunately not so common as the normal situation, in which a librarian appoints a department branch or head who will take over responsibility and exercise good judgment in decisions, tact in staff relationships and initiative in seeing what needs to be done and getting his colleagues to join in, push ahead and get it done. The department head needs to go over new situations with the director at the start, and unless there is a written statement of relationships and authority he should find out the extent to which the latter wishes to keep in touch with departmental details—most likely only with the larger problems which frequently

arise and whose answer may depend on general policies and viewpoints of the library as a whole. The higher up an executive moves, the more valuable his ideas, the more important the topics with which he deals and the more skillful he must become to sell ideas to the chief. Here are suggestions for having ideas accepted: Make them interesting and appealing in behalf of the whole library. Time the approach so that it will not conflict with budget problems or some other major project under consideration. De-emphasize one's own originality and pride of idea but try to have it seem a part of the chief's program. Present the idea in plain language and in terms that conform to the existing setup in the library. Have the proposal completely thought out as to how it can be managed, by whom, at what cost. Foresee on what points it may be least harmful to compromise, because few proposals are adopted in toto at once. Avoid an unfavorable decision by suggesting postponement for further study and then try to get it into better shape, or if one feels inadequate for the presentation try to find someone who can present it more effectively and without losing the originator's conviction of its worth.⁶

In particular, the department head has a right to share in selection and appointment of his own staff, whether or not the library has a personnel officer. He should expect to write the specifications for the job, decide whether it is professional or clerical, suggest candidates and how to find the best ones, share in interviewing them and recommend to the librarian which one he thinks best qualified.

A good director wishes to know what goes on, to hear what problems are arising and how they are solved, to be advised on the progress of the departmental staff, services and community contacts, but not to be called upon for the time-consuming task of hearing about everything that happens. Yet a good library will not flourish when the director simply gives general instructions in a large way to his department heads, turns them loose, and expects that everything will run well because the department heads have pedigrees of training and experience. The director must supervise his supervisors, namely the department heads. It is he who has to pay attention to, encourage, sustain and "make the department heads happy." But this involves a cordial relationship wherein both understood how far each is to go in interference or independence. In a good situation leader and lieutenant share in problems and policies of consequence, or in controversial matters affecting the library's community relations.

Just when is the director's attention needed on a department situation?⁷ A director in a city of 150,000 was constantly appealed to for an additional assistant by the conscientious, trained circulation head, whose management problems seemed almost to overwhelm her. After acceding against his own judgment to the necessity of getting one and then another new position financed, he learned that she was resigning to accept a larger position elsewhere. Her successor, not professionally trained, had the gift of efficient

organization and sought economy. Without prompting, or intimating that the former head was not a good manager, she surprised the librarian a month later by reporting she had simplified routines, reassigned work and could give as prompt and full service to readers with five as with seven assistants, a striking example of good department headship. Should not the director have taken a close look into things himself? Should he have challenged the recommendation of the department head and insisted on having the department tightened up? Both director and department heads should be good delegators, but as administrators they cannot let things drift. They must be straightener-outers. Furthermore, they have to see, sometimes sooner than those immediately concerned but oblivious, what needs to be straightened out.

Chapters 3 and 6 included discussion of staff participation, but the department head is actually the chief participator in any library, both upward and downward. Just as he participates with the director in planning and decisions as one of the team so he should encourage and guide his own staff to participate in departmental problem discussion, planning and decisions.

Who Trains the Department Head?

Only a few library schools or large libraries give any instruction to actual or would-be department heads as to planning, leadership, management or supervision. Nearly every department head has to train and propel himself forward. In any library with more than eight or ten department and branch heads the director or someone specially qualified should give a series of regular instruction-discussion periods for these heads, as discussed in the next chapter. In these days of frequent turnover of professional staff, the department head can, by a course of reading, increase his ability to assign work to the assistants, give clear-cut instructions about it and explain to them their relationship with other staff members as well as the details of their work. One objective is to give each assistant the feeling that he, as an individual, is acquiring more knowledge, taking and meeting more responsibilities and serving the community better than he was a month earlier. Each assistant wants to progress and have his progress recognized by some word of encouragement, and his shortcomings brought promptly to his attention in a constructive, kindly and helpful way, but not in a critical, carping or disagreeable fashion.

Some qualities which help a department head to develop are:

(1) An open and questioning mind as to present methods and what can be done to improve and increase services to readers. (2) Imagination and initiative to see what is going on with each assistant, what can be done and how to do it. (3) Courage to try, even if one makes a mistake; little progress is made without some risk and some errors. (4) Readiness to disagree tactfully with

one's assistants, one's fellow department heads and one's superiors. Yes-men accomplish little and win little respect from their colleagues, and handshakers never get far. Neither does the person go far who is always objecting and asserting himself to register his individuality and his opinions. Two factors are helpful—focusing on what the library is trying to do instead of on its difficulties or on the negative reactions of others; and forgetting one's own prestige and infallibility, which so often block good results from discussion. (5) Awareness of progress in other departments; other libraries and other professions, and trying to apply the good ideas and elements to one's own department, encouraging one's assistants to do the same. (6) Firmness in sticking to ideas that have been worked out and agreed on, or in seeing that assistants do well and with good spirit the work assigned them. A staff does not respect a head who wilts under pressure, or is afraid to be frank in insisting on good results. Many department heads, as well as directors, are too easily satisfied with mediocre performance, because they dread the "pushing and hauling," as they think of it, of aiming high and working hard for high attainment.

(7) Fairness in equal treatment, without favoritism in dealing with colleagues. Great exception is taken when one assistant gets all the interesting assignments and another gets all the drudgery, or it is discovered that the head has made some confidential arrangement with one that is not shared by the others. If such assignments are properly based on comparative background and ability, the problem is to make all hands see why assignments are fair and to do this so that the aggrieved one does not feel let down or unappreciated. In assigning duties to professional and clerical workers, a good head tries to build up morale for nonprofessional work and make it challenging and interesting.

(8) Consistency. This virtue is not easy to achieve and it is not equivalent to stubborn refusal to change one's mind or statements when one realizes one has been in error, or when new facts or conditions have changed a situation. It does mean refraining from snap judgments and giving hasty instructions recognized by assistants as such, which have to be undone or evaded. It does mean thinking things through, with the staff as participants, and being able to make careful decisions and then follow steadily along the course set. Some perceptive staff member may be specially helpful in reminding the head of problems not yet solved.

Relations with Other Department Heads

Another rewarding responsibility of the head is the fostering within his department of a cordial and understanding relationship with the other departments; they are parts of one larger whole, loyalty to which comes first. Hard to believe is the case of a trained assistant in a large city library department, separated from an honor-winning assistant in the next department only by a frequently opened door; when asked if he knew her very well after working six months only eighty feet from her desk, he replied that he had never met her!

A good department head need not consider himself too inquisitive if he takes some interest in other departments, and shows a real desire to know the procedures, problems, hopes and accomplishments on the other side of the fence. Nor is there any substantial satisfaction in departmental rivalries or in contests for attention or circulation triumphs. It makes things easier to be on cordial terms with every other department and staff member, better still to be equally desirous for their welfare and prestige.⁷

There are many points at which department functions converge and even overlap. Most common is the artificial line between circulation and reference, which in some libraries are located side by side, with staff and readers finding it hard to draw a line as to materials or users. If a large library has subject departments, what are the relationships between them and toward the general reference and circulation departments? To what extent are juvenile books occasionally cataloged also in the adult catalog and vice versa? How well do the catalogers understand the scope, objectives and reader services in the public departments as they affect classification, fullness of cataloging, etc.? How do the service heads and the bindery head come to agreement as to what most needs binding and rebinding? Such questions, some discussed in subsequent chapters, call for effort to identify the questions at issue, and to arrange for discussion among departments, and at department head meetings, sometimes by committees. This should result in written statements or definite understandings which will be passed on to each member of both department staffs, or included in the staff bulletin if there is one.

PLANNING AND ASSIGNING THE WORK

The department head is responsible for the training of each new assistant in the varied aspects of the work. What are these? It helps in every way not merely to study the duties and routines of each present position, but to start with a clean slate and take apart the elements of the work, such as the various aspects of the collection, the types of service given, the responsibility for schedules, for instructing the staff, for the flow of ideas from various sources to each assistant, etc. How are all these to be arranged and organized? Such a fresh study may turn up neglected functions, or involve changes in assignment. Some of the following chapters give details of work breakdowns in the various departments.

Assigning the Parts of the Work

To back up service to readers such daily routines as the following should be defined and assigned to the best-qualified person available: book selec-

tion and getting orders ready and passed on to the ordering point, seeing that these books arrive soon and are "put through"; exchanging information among the department staff about these new books, and planning how each book can be made most useful in the community. Much of this goes on in daily informal conversation. Perhaps one person is assigned to all these four aspects of new book flow, but the others should take part, or they will miss out on some of the department's combined book knowledge, and it will help provide as fair and even distribution of work and time schedules as possible.

Work assignments and responsibilities among the staff of a busy branch adult room overbalanced with untrained workers and badly understaffed call for resourcefulness and cooperation far beyond a situation where adequate competent assistants are present. The department head has to evaluate wisely the special abilities and interests of each worker, as he is, and fit jobs and assistants most effectively.

There is also the "housekeeping," or having routines cleaned up on time, such as circulation records and statistics, with work stations set up efficiently, materials made ready and put away, or better held over, in neat order, for the next session of the same operation. Work and time schedules for each worker are a bother but they save time, arguments and confusion. A department head may find too much of his own time spent on routines, or on decisions and duties involved in them. But each part of the work must be assigned, and each worker should have responsibility for something definite. One conscientious department head, not too adept at directing others and oppressed by a multitude of duties, was persuaded to give over to her first assistant all work assigning, schedules and the supervision of five persons. To the first assistant all this was simple and easy. Then all went well and happily. One monthly and annual task in libraries of perhaps 75,000 population and upward is to prepare a brief report, even a page, on departmental accomplishments, objectives and problems with at least the main facts and statistics. If one jots down notes and has an assistant assemble data, such reports need not take much time. But they are essential to a sense of progress and help the director in planning, and in preparing his overall reports.

Instructions

The initial instructions to a worker determine his whole attitude to the job; they affect the speed with which he understands and does it skillfully. Consequently the head or a qualified assistant needs to plan the instruction period carefully, outline logically the topics to cover, and consider how to give the directions clearly, patiently and cordially, as discussed in the next chapter.

THE DEPARTMENT'S MATERIALS

Chapter 27 and some portion of each chapter on public service departments and branches are devoted to administration of the book collection. Here we only summarize major aspects for which a department head is especially responsible.

Coverage and emphasis should not be left in a taken-for-granted status of uncertainty. A copy of the main class numbers and subjects, taken from the classification scheme, gives a constant bird's eye view of the subject coverage and helps avoid blank spots in selecting books. The head and staff will frequently discuss both coverage and emphasis. For example, the great value of up-to-date textbooks for general reader use, as on physics, chemistry, history and foreign relations, is often overlooked. The staff needs to know the community's chief vocational and other interests. What degree of specialization and difficulty of the books will best serve this clientele? Any community of over 5,000 needs not just a book on woodworking, but a \$7 or \$8 book on house carpentry with measured diagrams of construction methods. An amateur gardener in this country should not be offered gardening books from England, where climates, varieties and nomenclature are so different. In other words, on practical subjects select practical books.

Locating the Collection

Chapters 18 and 19, on reference work, and Chapter 27 on the book collection discuss important nonbook materials, such as pamphlets and clippings, which need to be specially assigned to assistants, to insure up-to-date public service. This brings up the perennial problem of the most efficient location of the various parts of the collection, i.e., most convenient for staff-plus-reader access. Unless, for example, there is a substantial collection of actively used books within the reference or reader service room, the staff is bound to waste time in going back and forth for books. This should be threshed out in staff meetings, after the head has listed and defined the various categories of materials and scanned the present or possible shelving. There is a very real "zone of preferred location" which involves the least travel. The game is to arrive at a set of priorities as to what should be nearest the service desk and how this may be accomplished without breaking the otherwise logical class-number sequence around the room. Certain books constantly used, like *World Almanac*, and highly stealable books, such as small handbooks, need to be kept close to the desk, possibly behind glass doors. The points at issue here are the contrasting ideas of successive department heads, the arbitrary decisions made, the frequently disrupting changes which confuse readers and staff, the lack of signs, "dummies" or other directing devices, the general inadequacy of the

discussion before changes are made, and the failure to foresee reader reactions.

DEVELOPING SERVICES TO READERS

All hands will give thought to freeing as much time as possible for the upper-salaried workers in the department to do the most important type of work of which they are capable (planning, decisions, difficult reference questions, staff oversight, evaluation, etc.) and pushing the less complicated and exacting, the most repetitive and routine work, along to those with less educational background, who are paid at a lower rate per hour. There is nothing personal or unjust about this division of work; it is a sensible differentiation between work and between workers. It should not be permitted to result in superiority-inferiority feelings on anyone's part. However, workers on repetitive routines should be given a turn at other work to break the monotony and to test initiative. Simplifying of routines is discussed in Chapter 11.

All these factors have a direct effect on service received by readers at the public service desks, for they mean saving time of the most valuable staff members to spend more of it on the public. No matter how busy each worker is, the head must see that readers receive prompt, interested, responsible, courteous attention and service, have their questions answered, and are not delayed while the staff finish desk or behind-the-scenes work. Often responsibility to keep watch over this has to be assigned to several persons but the head has to keep watch over it too. Workers should avoid discussing personal matters or gossip where readers may overhear, for whether he wills it or not the staff member creates the image of the library even if he thinks himself unobserved. Actions, attitudes, methods, even words of librarians, are immeasurable factors for strength or weakness. Traits such as accuracy, approachability, cheerfulness, enthusiasm and interest constantly influence reader evaluation of the library. One should look as though he is enjoying life and his work, and desiring to share his enjoyment.

STAFF DEVELOPMENT

The department head is the chief staff developer; he needs to direct his own thinking outside of himself to understand, appreciate and build up each of his workers. This is not a hard task, one would think, with a small group of selected assistants. True, the general attitude and morale of the staff is in large part influenced by the leadership, enthusiasm, good sense and administrative effectiveness of the head librarian, who communicates goals and convictions to the entire organization. But even if he is remote,

reserved, a poker face, unenthusiastic, perhaps unsure of himself, and flawed with less estimable qualities, the department head need not follow in his pattern, but can develop assistants so successfully that his department is the one most called upon for personnel to be promoted. One measure of the genius of a department head is the number of outstanding "graduates" he can prepare for larger positions in his own and other libraries, and colleagues who are known as widely in the profession as he is.

For example, in more libraries than it is realized, there are staff members with special abilities, knowledge of and interest in subjects, methods, ideas and suggestions which are not utilized because they fall outside narrowly assigned "duties." A good head discovers these assets by encouraging inquiry. "The department head needs to size up the potential of each assistant as soon as possible and try to estimate how many balls he can juggle" (Elsa von Hohenhoff). Abilities can often be utilized if colleagues know about and draw on them, sometimes in helping with reader questions, sometimes by having opportunity or invitation to initiate, plan or take part in some creative project. Department heads are the organization's chief appreciators. The reluctance and failure of some heads to make a business of encouraging the affirmative and constructive attitude of every assistant in the day's work deprives both parties of their chief satisfaction.⁸

The head needs to keep his staff well informed of the day's doings so that they can deal with many situations in his absence. Even with only four or five in the group, a daily exchange of ideas and information and a sharing of interesting letters and comment is vital. Weekly or fortnightly discussion sessions keep each one in touch with planning, problems, successes of the whole department, with new instructions, and the flow of vital knowledge about books and better service methods. When it is not feasible to take the entire group away from the reader service area at one time, the discussion has to be repeated for two groups, perhaps the day and the evening group. But perhaps a stand-in from another department can take the service desk for an hour. These difficulties should not prevent the meeting of minds and discussion that can be so useful. Perhaps the staff can plan and arrange these meetings to include discussion of routines of work; suggested improvements in methods; attitudes; personal adjustment problems; new developments in the profession; problems of public relations; policies regarding participation in professional and community life; constructive criticism of work and planning the priority of work to be done, its relative importance, how much time it would consume, what it should include and who is to do what part of it.

Developing the New Assistant

Interviews with several score assistants in many libraries have shown that even after a year of service many felt themselves badly informed and con-

fused as to their own work, the library in general and their relationships with their colleagues. This means a serious weakness in administration—the failure to be sure that every assistant is getting the instruction he craves. The same situations are found in business and industry: assistants don't get as much instruction as they need, they frequently receive conflicting instructions, they never are told why work methods are changed, they have too many bosses, they never are told how they are doing. The department head is the one to see that these frustrating experiences are avoided.

Whatever training program the library may be able to offer, as discussed in the next chapter, the primary, logical training place is on the job within the department, with the department head as leader, instructor, guide and developer. No one else is in as good a position to carry out this function effectively. Depending on the character, initiative and energy of the new assistant the head will see that his first day, his first month, his first year go effectively and happily in the new work. The assistant needs also to know all he can about the other jobs within the department, so that he can pinch-hit in emergencies. In time, through training, systematic exposure and testing at ever more complex and responsible assignments, he can be prepared for promotion, even to the point of eventually succeeding the head. A good head is no longer developing himself alone; he has to shift his attention to producing other executives now beginning their careers. One of his greatest satisfactions will be the training of capable assistants to know more and become more proficient than himself.

First of all, the newcomer wishes to know library and department objectives and policies, and how they affect him. "Just what am I supposed to do? Just where and how? With what facilities and materials? Are these ready for me? Who will teach me how to do the job?" He needs to know that reader service has priority, that weekly schedules are therefore planned to concentrate personnel at peak periods, in order to divide the work load evenly among the assistants, and that sometimes assistants may be inconvenienced in order that there be enough trained staff on duty. But a good head tries to rearrange schedules to meet special emergencies, if this can be done without harm to the service. One of the increasing burdens on busy department heads is to find ways to help new assistants coming out of library school acquire a respectable knowledge about books, so that when readers ask for assistance from recent trained appointees the latter will not feel almost helpless. One of the most profitable activities for new assistants is to read, read, read, and get some acquaintance with the book stock they are attempting to service.

Mere "induction" or "orientation" periods are in general too short, too few and too superficial. Libraries large enough to have a succession of new appointees starting every few weeks, or even two or three a year, should get as much job instruction as possible into written form, as a major time saver,

particularly the details of tasks involved in serving the public. Some experienced assistant may be assigned to teach the newcomer with care and patience. But one way to learn is through the example of a good head. Any previous experience in any pertinent activity should be capitalized on and fitted into the new work. His first assignment should not be too long or too difficult, and someone should keep closely in touch with the newcomer for the first few days, seeing that he asks many questions and gets satisfactory answers. He needs to try out each new process, be told how he is doing it, be corrected and taught, and encouraged to improve steadily by a word of commendation, or a "Let's see if we can do thus and so." He needs help in building up his interest and pleasure in doing the job no matter how routine someone else may consider it.⁹

Many newcomers feel lonesome and appreciate friendliness from others; they need to be introduced to their new colleagues and to the community, and vice versa. So simple a thing as starting a bank account locally rather than leaving it behind in the previous town or in the home town makes a difference in attitude. How long are they to hold back as strangers, at best as transients? It is better if they plunge in, feel like neighbors, and give the job everything they have, with the intention of staying in the library a long time. They wonder what the opportunities are. These should be explained as early as possible and in some detail, taking care not to exaggerate possibilities or magnify difficulties, but giving a fair picture of what the assistant has a right to look to a year or two years hence if he performs well and masters intervening assignments. If possible, some idea of the sequence of these assignments should be explained carefully, with reasons. Introductory talks with new assistants need to be planned and outlined, with important statements phrased in advance to be understood and welcomed. Their questions and reactions should be noted, so as to improve subsequent interviews.

We have stressed elsewhere the great importance of departmental instruction books or sheets, which clarify so much and save so much time and confusion. It is never too soon to start preparing at least a few pages on some part of the work, and keeping on from there until the library has at least the makings of a "practice book."¹⁰

A definite program of orientation and study, prepared during mutual discussion between head and assistants, will quickly build knowledge in the fields in which they may feel inadequate. It is up to assistants to do considerable study on their own time if they mean business. They should study at least an elementary book or lengthy article, summarizing the organization, manufacturing processes and marketing of two or three major local industries. Assistants want some freedom to suggest new ideas and methods, with a receptive attitude from the head. But they may need a kindly private squelch, not for their suggestions, but for their attitudes and

relationships if they are hypercritical, uncooperative, self-seeking, self-satisfied, opinionated, lazy, indifferent or mulish. These traits interfere with their own and with other persons' happiness and progress.

Turning to advice for the assistant himself, we give two quotations that may sound elementary and naïve. Many assistants both old and new fail to enjoy their work fully because they fail to observe some of these everyday, realistic common-sense maxims:

"Give your job all you've got and treat your work as if it were the most important of all. Be honest and dependable and polite. Put service to others first even when it's not convenient. Be cooperative, with a smile and a willing way. Make no promises that you won't keep to the letter. Accept responsibilities, don't duck them. If anything ought to be done, and can be done, do it now. If you need an answer you don't know, don't hesitate to ask someone who can help you. Seize every opportunity to increase your knowledge and brain power, and to increase your skills. Don't let setbacks discourage you. Don't be impatient. If your enthusiasm lags, pretend you've got it anyway and it will come back. If you value your extra effort more, the value of your time will increase. Keep your body fit, your mind active, and your spirit right; and you'll come out on top!" (*Optimeter*, April 1959.)

"Ten commandments of human relations: 1. Speak to people. There is nothing as nice as a cheerful word of greeting. 2. Smile at people. It takes 72 muscles to frown, only 14 to smile. 3. Call people by name. The sweetest music to anyone's ear is the sound of his name. 4. Be friendly and helpful. If you would have friends, be friendly. 5. Be cordial. Speak and act as if everything you do were a genuine pleasure. 6. Be genuinely interested in people. You can like everybody if you try. 7. Be generous with praise, cautious with criticism. 8. Be considerate with the feelings of others—it will be appreciated. 9. Be thoughtful of the opinion of others—there are three sides to a controversy . . . yours . . . the other fellow's . . . and the right one. 10. Be alert to give service. What counts in life is what we do for others." (From *Footnote*. Wichita City Library.)

Most librarians and department heads realize the value of true enthusiasm, but often new workers with a "show me," blasé or negative attitude hurt their chances by indulging in such philosophies, instead of pitching in, working hard, forgetting themselves and trying to be more effective. To summarize points suggested by many librarians: Progress is made by setting a worthwhile goal and putting one's energy and attention on it. Analyze, separate the aspects of the job, such as: the book collection and the subjects it represents; what you know and how much you might know about them (a great deal, if you dig into them); the services to the public and how they are organized and handled to meet reader expectations; the routines, which make things roll along smoothly; can they be improved? See what goes on in other departments; one takes more satisfaction in one's library if one knows its varied activities and does not retire within a departmental shell. Are your relationships with your colleagues frank, sincere, open-minded; are you helping each of them as you might

wish them to help you? A knowledge of your job engenders enthusiasm, especially if you have a strong conviction that the department and the library are serving the public effectively, for you have a part therein. Work can be fun but some persons never learn this. Loyalty to the others concerned is obviously the basis for their loyalty to you. Learn to take criticism impersonally and to profit by it; do not resent it in an immature, sensitive way. If the boss appears lukewarm about you, why not talk things over with him, ask for a frank statement of your good and bad performance and what you can do to improve? The ability to profit by criticism, to overlook what seems to be a slight, to come up smiling, to keep pegging away on the main line, to avoid being distracted into unprofitable, little personal sideline ventures that do not help the department—if you can master these difficulties, you show your growth into ability for greater responsibilities.¹¹

PROMOTION AND COMMUNITY CONTACTS

Whether or not a library has a publicity-minded chief librarian, or an indefatigable publicity head, it is the department head who is chiefly responsible for public awareness of the materials and services of his department. He neglects this aspect of his work at the library's expense. Here again he can interest his staff in suggesting topics for publicity, which can be delegated to one of them for putting into finished form and then passed along to any publicity person to be issued as news stories, circulars or other media, and coordinated with other library publicity, as noted in Chapters 9 and 30. But the department staff, including each assistant, needs to plan and carry on a continual program to reach the men, women and children who should be using the library but aren't. It does not do to say, "Lovely, but where is the time?" Few departments are as devoid of resourcefulness in promotion as one might think from the lack of attention given this. As outlined elsewhere, the group approach in general brings greatest return for time spent; therefore the department head and any assistant whose ability can be developed should plan occasional outside speaking engagements and prepare themselves carefully. Circulars and booklists, telephone calls and many types of publicity will bring in new patrons.

If the department is swamped with work, it is up to the head to see whether this busyness is direct service to readers. Perhaps paperwork can be reduced, simplified and delegated to successful assistants. One or two assistants cannot attend to circulation records, look up and help readers on a heavy flow of reference questions, as well as scan and select from the flow of potential new materials; there is a limit. But someone in the majority of departments and branches could devote an hour or so a week to outside contacts, and if the head shrinks from them he should try to overcome his reluctance, or see that one of his colleagues meets this depart-

ment obligation, keeping the director informed of plans, results and unforeseen ramifications which affect the whole library.

APPRAISING THE DEPARTMENT

Most department heads and branch librarians have a general feeling that things are running fairly well within their domain, though they may have occasional misgivings. Few head librarians evaluate their departments, and the department head continues in doubt as to how well he is running it. It may help to ask each assistant, without consulting the others, to rate his department, scoring 1 to 10 on each of the following points according to how good it is in his estimation. If these ratings and replies are made on a typewriter to preserve anonymity, submitted in envelopes and totaled by one of the group, the head has a fairly objective appraisal of the health of his unit:

1. Is everyone diligent in seeing that each reader is served promptly, fully, in a friendly, helpful manner?
2. Do any of the staff tend to become so immersed in their special duties and paperwork that they fail to notice what goes on that they *should* notice?
3. Has the head so scheduled assistants that peak hour and peak season demands of the public are best met, even if it means crossing the desires of some workers to avoid evening or Saturday-afternoon schedules, etc.? In other words, do you feel that the head has the courage to run the department for the benefit of the public and sees that his staff shares this public-first attitude?
4. Does the department head give close enough supervision to the work of assistants so they feel he knows what and how they are doing, and that each is profitably busy but not overloaded?
5. Is he sincere in saying "well done," and frank in pointing out weaknesses, correcting errors and bad attitudes and pointing out better ways to do things?
6. Is he rightly critical of, and does he correct, tardiness, negligence and lack of devotion to the work and to the public?
7. Does the department head work cooperatively with each of his group, smooth out difficulties among them and find ways to minimize friction?
8. Does the department staff work happily and effectively together, and are they as a group what you might call "on their toes"?
9. Do you think enough care is given, and high enough standards are observed in filling vacancies in the department staff?
10. Is enough attention paid to organizing and assigning work?
11. To giving assistants the instruction they need?
12. To trying to find simpler, less time-consuming ways to do what needs be done, and to quit doing what can be omitted?
13. Does the staff have sufficient encouragement and planning for discussing problems together and making decisions as to their work and the book collection?
14. Do you feel that book selection for the department is effectively organ-

ized and prompt and is developing a strong, active collection, with all the staff taking part in selection?

15. Is there encouragement to keep acquainted and on cordial terms with the other library departments, instead of thinking, talking or acting critically about them?

16. Are all the department staff on their toes as to developments in other libraries from reading library literature and by discussion?

17. Is the department head sufficiently frank and tactful with the head librarian in discussing departmental developments, problems and needs, instead of reporting what he thinks will please the librarian and hesitating to present unfavorable factors and developments?

18. State here which two aspects of the administration of your department you consider as most in need of attention and further improvement.

19. What weakness in other parts of the library organization do you consider most important to have straightened out, because they prevent your department from being more effective and economical?

Departments which can get a high rating on all the foregoing points deserve congratulations. The schedule may reveal weak spots and give incentive to build up a head's abilities and work satisfaction.

REFERENCES

In the literature on library administration we found no chapter and little text on department management. Three books may be recommended for their practical ideas:

1. Erwin H. Schell. *Technique of Executive Control*. 8th ed. 357 p. 1957. McGraw-Hill. \$6. Especially good on interrelations and getting results from superiors and from assistants, through understanding and cooperation.

2. Mary C. H. Niles. *Middle Management; the Job of the Junior Administrator*. Rev. ed. 274 p. 1949. Harper. n.p. Every page is packed with stimulating realistic suggestions, examples, quotations.

3. Nathaniel Cantor. *The Learning Process for Managers*. 154 p. 1958. Harper. \$3.50. How those in charge of others may better understand right attitudes in working out situations with them, to get results with least friction.

FOOTNOTES AND SPECIAL MATERIAL

4. *Salary Statistics for Large Public Libraries*. 1960. Enoch Pratt Free Library. \$1.25. Large lithoprint sheet.

5. Joseph J. Famularo. "You and Your Boss." *Supervisory Management*. 6: 20-25. Feb. 1961. Similar to Chapter 14, "Your Bosses." In his *Supervisors in Action*. 238 p. 1961. McGraw-Hill Co. \$4.75. p. 213-231. Also Robert S. Hall. "You Can Make the Boss Listen." *Nation's Business*. 48: 60-64. April 1960.

6. Everett W. and J. McDiarmid. *The Administration of the American Public Library*. 1943. A.L.A. p. 57.

7. William B. Given. *Reaching Out in Management*. 175 p. 1953. Harper. Chapters 6, 7, 8 have ideas for department heads, including ways to cut across other departments to get things done by the team approach.

8. Moorhead Wright. "Individual Growth: the Basic Principles." *Personnel*, 37: 8-17. Sept.-Oct. 1960. Ten factors in human development, clarified by a G.E. research study in 1953. "Simple and even obvious . . ." but—"study and observation indicate . . . that these . . . principles are often violated and ignored."

9. *Starting the New Employee*. U.S. Army Civilian Personnel Pamphlet. 41-B-55. Also Raymond Schuessler. "How to Prepare for the New Worker." *Office Economist*. Issue 6, 1960. p. 4+. Includes a checklist for induction. Also Nathaniel Stewart. "Give Your Men a Faster Start." *Nation's Business*. 49: 74-78, August 1961. Discusses induction of new executives such as department heads.

10. Vera Goessling and Rachel Wilkes. *Manual for Student Library Assistants*. 2nd ed. 29 p. lith. 1958. Centralia (Illinois) Township High School. \$1. A perceptive presentation of ABC, which many professionals have overlooked. From it, other libraries may write up their own instructions for everyday routines. Also *SLAAM Handbook* . . . 58. 1959. Student Librarian Assistant's Assoc'n of Michigan. \$1. Part 3 is a manual. General orientation pamphlets published by several libraries for their beginners are listed under "Staff Information" in the index *Library Literature*.

11. The new assistant should scan Orlando A. Battista. *How to Enjoy Work and Get More Fun Out of Life*. 229 p. 1957. Prentice Hall. \$4.95. One of the more acceptable, realistic self-help books. See also Mark Clifton. *Opportunity Unlimited; What Management Is Looking For in You*. 173 p. 1959. \$3.95. Chilton Co., Phila. Information that college graduates need to adjust from school to the facts of life on the job. Try also Alexander F. Osborn's *Your Creative Power*. 375 p. 1948. Scribner. And Richard P. Calhoun's *Moving Ahead on Your Job*. 205 p. 1946. McGraw-Hill.

CHAPTER 16

Supervision in the Library

While effective supervision is primarily a major responsibility of each department head and branch librarian, there are thousands of small libraries where the librarian is the sole supervisor. Hundreds of other libraries are large enough to have assistant librarians and assistant department heads delegated to supervise their respective groups. Frequently an assistant with a flair for it is sensibly assigned to supervise the work of special groups such as pages, or a "task force" for a temporary project.

THE PLACE AND FUNCTION OF SUPERVISION

The objective of supervision is to guide, instruct, improve and develop assistants in their daily tasks, as the basic means to improve methods, knowledge and service. It is the process of continuous in-service training.¹⁻¹³ The Latin derivation of *super vision* suggests looking over, overseeing, "keeping an eye peeled," seeing what goes on. Good supervision depends on keeping keenly alert as to what each worker is doing and how well; how each reader is faring; how promptly and how well each book is progressing through the behind-the-scenes processes, and how each assistant is getting along in his self-development. Supervision does not imply a critical negative attitude. It is not "snooper-vision," but awareness of what is being done plus helpful teaching and development of others. It is wrapped up in human relations.

Chapter 14 discussed personnel reports and employee rating as a device for development and promotion. This evaluation is logically done by a supervisor who knows better than anyone else the employees in question and the quality of their work.¹⁶ Though most libraries do not use rating sheets or records, and though supervisors shrink from complete frankness in recording a worker's shortcomings, a simple record is of great value and should be filled out by any supervisor with more than three or four assistants. Correcting should be frank, objective, with a helpful attitude, and a matter of routine; the rating sheet conference should not be the first time an assistant knows where he stands. Service rating has been called a tool of

supervision because if conscientiously utilized it brings worker and supervisor closer together to talk over the job, its problems and the quality of work, and for helpful recommendations.

Clearly the librarian or his delegated assistant should supervise department heads and branch librarians, who in turn with their first assistants should supervise their groups of workers. Supervision is best entrusted to those who are or can become capable teachers and helpers. Greenhorns do not make good supervisors. Selection and training of supervisors is one of the librarian's critical tasks. If a training program seems essential, an experienced advisor can be retained for several months, "not to do the training itself except for brief demonstration, but to coordinate, arrange details, and assist supervisors in planning . . . and show these supervisors how to instruct."¹⁷ Sometimes an experienced assistant can be delegated as supervisor and this may take the form of a course to train supervisors as discussed below.

DEVELOPING ATTITUDES AND MORALE

This book has emphasized developing an understanding of the library's purpose, and a conviction that each job is important. Responsibility for these attitudes has been laid in turn on the trustees, the librarian and the department and branch heads; each of them helps to make or mar library morale. As supervisor the department or branch head comes closest to each worker. His philosophy should be to inculcate a constructive spirit, the desire to improve, the feeling that each worker is progressing and has done his work worthily, or perhaps with distinction.

The Supervisory Climate

It is not easy to bring a dozen assistants of varying backgrounds up to a high level of social viewpoint, such as that of one who may have been imbued at home and in school with a sense of social helpfulness, and the obligation to be responsible and do good work. The group can be made aware that these are normal, healthy working viewpoints by the example of the supervisor. A "supervisory climate" can be built by: concentrating on improving public services; understanding each assistant's attitudes, fears, hopes, obsessions, constructive aims, special interests and abilities, and building all these toward a stronger, more resourceful individual as the weeks pass; observing developments in the whole library field, interpreting these to the assistants; encouraging questions and discussion and taking a positive rather than negative or indifferent attitude. This healthy working climate depends on how well the supervisor can make allowances for differences in the way various workers think, feel and act, whether he can meet their wish to feel part of a worthwhile group, and how well he can avoid being upset or stopped by their reluctance to change things. Instead

of being exasperated by an interruption, he can look up with a smile, say, "Wait a second," finish his interrupted thought, and then pay pleasant attention. He can find a compromise between every individual's wish to feel important and his sensitiveness to criticism. Solving these daily problems of human nature through practical psychology is as much the supervisor's job as the work itself.¹⁸

The supervisor may profitably concentrate on a few factors which help develop workers' morale: by setting goals of service and achievement and giving an understanding of the reasons why these goals are worthwhile, by instructing assistants on numerous facts about the library, the department, the collections and the service methods, so the staff is inevitably though unconsciously learning the principles day by day; and by man-to-man coaching on the job, which is the backbone of training. For the understudy can talk things over with his supervisor and apply what he learns. An assistant should not be limited by the instruction, the methods, the ideas, the personality of one person, his immediate supervisor. When such a situation exists, the supervisor has dominated rather than stimulated. Instead of rushing in with a solution, the supervisor should learn how to develop the assistant's confidence and ability to solve his own problem. Does he understand just what is being done, how and why? The counseling should be informal and encouraging.¹⁹ One branch librarian, perceptive, enthusiastic and capable, alert to book values and to reader satisfaction, was so good in supervising that trained assistants newly arrived in the system asked for the privilege of working at this branch on their own unpaid time because they learned so much so fast and so enjoyably. This administrative ability resulted in promotion to an important administrative post.

The Supervisor as Work Simplifier

The supervisor is the person closest to the problems of work simplification, as discussed in Chapter 11. He can see sooner than anyone else whether each part of the operation is as simple and flows as smoothly as possible. A good supervisor encourages method questioning. The things needing improvement are not always apparent, and a new worker may see them with a fresh eye. Often a new set of routines can be developed by the supervisor and his group; this is the most effective and least disruptive route to method simplifying.

The Supervisor as Service Improver

Whoever supervises in a public service department is especially responsible for the satisfaction of each reader. He therefore has to keep his eye on the readers and follow through on what happens to each, by being on duty at the service desk and waiting on some of them a few hours each

week, to observe their difficulties and disappointments. Thus he discovers problems and can seek solutions. He needs to assure himself that no assistant permits a reader to enter the department without receiving attention, or to leave it without getting what he needs, unless there is a satisfactory explanation as to why the information is not forthcoming. If the department head delegates this straightening-out to his first assistant he should explain to him these service shortcomings and back him up in getting them remedied. Preoccupation of assistants, any apparent inattention to readers, busyness with scanning magazines or books while readers wait are situations that should be noticed and corrected.

PLANNING AND SCHEDULING INSTRUCTION

General viewpoints can be inculcated at all times; scrutiny of work performance should be continuous. But actual instruction requires a plan and a schedule. Planning guards against such mistakes as teaching too much at one time, teaching too fast, assuming the learner knows because you know, not being patient enough, not motivating the learner, not keeping the learner interested, not adapting instruction to the individual, lack of tact, trying to treat adults like children, not finding out the learner's background, not providing chance for practice, not preparing for and following up on instruction and not teaching in logical sequence, from simple to complex.

New library school graduates are unacquainted with a department's methods. Nothing is gained by resenting the fact that a holder of two degrees doesn't know all the answers. Nor should the recruit's attitude be that learning a lot of clerical routines is just too ridiculous; he may shortly have to teach them to others. How and by whom shall new clerical workers, pages or janitors be given job instruction? Here again, certain orientation facts about the library can be given to groups that include several categories of workers; but for specific job training it saves time to teach only three or four at once.²⁰ The department's best-qualified person is the one to give instruction. Depending on what is to be taught, the instructor may be the head, the first assistant or some other assistant with aptitude for smooth, effective teaching, so that the learner masters the new work satisfactorily. A great deal of frustration may often be saved by delegating the instruction. This does not absolve the head or first assistant from seeing that all goes well, or from making the recruit feel that the head is interested in him and aware of his doings day after day.

In public departments instruction has to be given during the least busy hours, but it is necessary to carry through the supervisory phase of the instruction as soon as the recruit himself begins to give service to readers, no matter how busy the department may be. It is not fair to the public or

to a new assistant to leave him alone at a public service station until his work there has been closely supervised and he is familiar with procedures. Otherwise he may undertake to answer readers' questions without realizing that he is not yet qualified to do so, and he may make decisions or statements which are erroneous or will give a bad impression.

THE TEACHING PROCESS

A good instructor spends time to plan, outline and schedule the series of lessons. He lists things to be done and lays out in advance the needed tools, samples and accessories. This instructing and supervising has to be done directly on the service "firing line," with instructor and recruit working as a team, asking and answering questions, noticing and correcting errors. Most instructors have to continue some attention to reader service and other departmental duties, to keep two tasks on their minds simultaneously. Often the regular operator or performer of a routine is the best instructor, especially if he is first given some pointers on how to teach a beginner. If it does not disrupt the payroll rules, it often is desirable to have the outgoing person overlap with and teach his new replacement.

The absorption method of letting the beginner learn by doing, sink or swim, is a lengthy and costly method compared to that of planning the instruction carefully and carrying it through patiently, with good rapport between teacher and learner. "Man to man coaching on the job constitutes probably 80 per cent of all training. It presents a really perfect learning situation, as the understudy who has a problem can talk it over with his supervisor and can put what he has learned into practice on a live problem of the moment."²¹

Training suggestions from numerous sources are here condensed:

Break down the task into instructional units, preferably in the same sequence as the job details, but sometimes with easier tasks first. Put the trainee at ease. Most new workers fear doing something wrong, and need close guidance and reassurance from the start. Cultivate the unattractive, backward, quiet workers; they may turn out to be the best. If it is true, tell them they seem to be catching on. Everyone makes mistakes. Be sure a mistake is worth correcting, and don't get excited about it. Give corrections in a quiet, impersonal, offhand way, as kindly suggestions rather than as reprimands and preferably not within the hearing of others. Do not make an issue of small details. Do not act as an important "know-it-all." Negative impressions and reactions at the beginning may have a long aftermath. Lead the learner to see how the task may be interesting. Help him build the healthy attitude of knowing that he does not know everything, of frankness to admit what he doesn't know, and of willingness to seek help from colleagues, all for the readers' benefit.

Explain the fundamentals of the work that is to be learned, also its purpose and how it relates to the preceding and following processes. Make requests

rather than give orders. Good instructions should be clear, complete, concise and direct. Generally the trainee should repeat the instructions and ask questions, until he is sure he understands what is wanted and how he is to do it. If the supervisor will recall the type and methods of instruction that he found effective from his own preceptors, he can put himself in the trainee's place and devise the best way to give the new instructions.

Fit the instruction talk to the individuals. Some are detail-minded, some inept with their hands, some neat, some sloppy; each has to be reached through his own line of thinking. Supervisors have to study their trainees as much as their job methods. If it is true that some other job procedure suggested by the trainee will not work as well as the one being taught, explain why this particular method is desirable. Written job instructions are highly useful even though some workers do not comprehend textual information, at least until they see it demonstrated. Explanation may have to be repeated verbally. For manual routines, such as typing a sample card or the pasting operation described in Chapter 11, it may save time to demonstrate it slowly and explain each step, and slow down for the trainee to keep up. Take one step at a time, explain how it fits into the sequence and have him master each step. Be sure that he can observe closely what is being done. Facing the same way he does may be less confusing. Tell him just what to expect before you do it. Focus attention on the important part of the operation and have him repeat it until he feels that he has mastered it. If he does not, repeat the process more slowly, and try to demonstrate more clearly. Devices such as completed examples and forms, models, pictures or rough drawings on the blackboard can supplement written and verbal instruction.

Then ask the trainee to try the task; guide and encourage him through the series of steps. One can learn a job only by doing it. This tryout should come as soon as possible after instruction or demonstration. Wrong habits can be prevented by correcting errors immediately, perhaps demonstrating the step again. Have the trainee explain each point to you as he does the job again. Continue until you know he knows. Practice and encouragement for improvement lead to competence and to a feeling of confidence.²² If the trainee cannot perform, perhaps the supervisor has failed to teach.

Here again the supervisor's job is not only to teach how, but also to stimulate the learner's active personal interest, by encouraging questions and discussion, by paying attention to his ideas, by giving him the feeling that he is accomplishing something and making himself useful in the library's progress. If the supervisor does all the thinking, all the telling, all the doing, there is no incentive left for the learner to feel that he is anything more than a cog in a machine; he becomes uninterested and may even feel inferior or degraded. No matter if the supervisor is pressed for time and impatient to get things done. It does not make anyone happy if he is captious, overbearing, cross and impatient. Nor need he be so phlegmatic that he arouses no spark in his assistants. These supervisory attitudes breed discontent and lead to a high turnover.

Instructing the Teen-Ager

Teen-agers on their first job especially need the close sympathetic and constructive attention of their supervisor. A good supervisor can recruit

intelligent young pages or helpers for college, library school and librarianship instead of their fading out of library work. "If you are an executive or someone that other people come to for advice—the way you advise other people may, in ten years, be responsible for the kind of people they are, or the attitude they have toward their job, or even whether your company [assistant] will still be in [the library] business."²³ An optimistic view is basic, because people generally respond to the faith shown in their willingness and ability to do a good job. Many young persons have more freedom at home than may be good for their sense of responsibility. Patience is needed to build this sense and to tie it into a realization of the significance of their work as service to the public.

Imagination, the supervisor's and the worker's, may devise ways to make the task more interesting. No two individuals will react in the same way to a given situation. One should welcome this individuality rather than expect complete conformity to an exact pattern. In all supervision, it is essential to correct and not tolerate poor performance. Frank and prompt but quiet, good-tempered, friendly and inconspicuous criticism is part of the learning process, to be taken for granted. The success of a supervisor is revealed by his skill in happily developing the morale, zeal and good performance of newly arrived teenage clerical aids, part-time and volunteer workers, as well as of trained persons, and by the degree to which they identify themselves with the library's objectives.

THE SUPERVISOR AND GROUP RELATIONSHIPS

"Getting things done through people" is a favorite phrase in administrative literature. The supervisor is aware of the personality of each assistant and he must try to understand his associates both as individuals and as a group. One basic principle is to minimize the differences in viewpoints and philosophy of workers. This does not mean being oblivious or ignoring difficulties, for they have to be solved. It does mean that the supervisor must cultivate poise, a tolerance for each person, appreciation for the good points in each, and patience with weaknesses or negative actions. It is a fortunate department that has no problem person, and the department head or other supervisor must learn to work with and improve the workers he has.

Few library workers rate highly or pay much attention to inveterate gossips and troublemakers, whose cogitations may reveal frustration, a wish for attention or hostility growing out of their early home life or training. In a book such as this it is not possible to discuss psychological factors, or typical problem cases,²⁴ but a few general suggestions are helpful, supplementing the commentary in Chapter 14.

Many problem persons have high ability and have turned out successfully, sometimes the most valuable in a group, despite their peculiarities. Conformity to a pattern is not always a virtue. Bring together the difficult person and a colleague who can stand the gaff, with instructions to avoid friction if possible and to cultivate his friendship and positive traits, diverting his thinking from subjects and situations which seem to upset him. Consider any grievance promptly, and approach it with a genuine desire to settle it to his satisfaction, if possible. Realize that he may sincerely believe he is right. Hear his story attentively with open mind, even though you and others may consider he is wrong. Emphasize details on which you can agree and try to determine those on which he seems to base his grievance. Perhaps he has a partial basis for his unhappiness, and this needs to be looked into with care.²³

An offhand, negative reply from the supervisor, or any attitude reflecting the idea that authority, power and rightness are ranged against an assistant generally destroys all effort at understanding. Listen patiently; avoid arbitrary decisions and rulings; see if another assignment is feasible. Carefully recall recent situations and contacts to see whether he has been given the good will, appreciation and interested attention he evidently needed. An introvert is apt not to receive cordial, encouraging comment, and this adds to his insecurity. The belief that the supervisor is working on his problems is worth a good deal. Generally a problem is not simple and clear cut; it may go back through a chain of small incidents which escaped notice or were minimized by those who did notice, while the sensitive, belligerent, or neurotic person magnified one thing after another.²⁴ The supervisor cannot solve a problem he has not studied and understood. He needs to subordinate his personal attitudes and his prejudices and avoid taking a strong stand too quickly, while looking into the case. In addition to individual talks it may be profitable to discuss the problem with the aggrieved and his colleagues together, if he is willing. This may not be practical, but sometimes a worker will adjust more quickly to group opinion than to the decision of a supervisor. Be slow to reprimand, and help him avoid repeating his mistakes.

The brief suggestions above may be supplemented by books listed at this chapter end, including Kalsem's Chapter 5, "Employee and Supervisory Gripes"; the Menninger booklet; and especially Bittel's Chapters 18, "Gripes and Grievances"; 20, "Supervising Older Workers"; and 22, "The Problem Employee."

In contrast to the problem workers are the unusually proficient and the few of exceptional ability. It is the supervisor's job to discover, develop and encourage the latent ability in each worker, adding more stimulating assignments, delegating more responsibility, and asking for suggestions. Often individuals who attracted no attention, who seemed to travel in the groove, who started out as shy or colorless have high abilities. The good supervisor

develops as many exceptional assistants as he can, for they are badly needed in higher positions.²⁷

Patience

Some supervisors reflect and pass on to others the inevitable strain of minor adjustments among people who work together. Others absorb and smooth down the strain of those adjustments. A little patience and the ability not to notice some things will help. Most supervision in libraries is by worker-supervisors, i.e., directors, department heads, branch librarians or their first assistants. They are almost universally overworked, especially with the extra time they generously give, which means that actually much supervision-instruction is hurried. When, therefore, personal problems arise or a worker seems just too much to be stood any longer, a common reaction is impatience, if not a flareup, with lost temper. A lawyer who loses his temper usually loses his case, and the library supervisor who loses his composure lessens his stature and weakens his leadership. As someone has suggested, if one wants to be patient and makes up his mind, he can. Try patience when something happens contrary to your will. Perhaps a slight diversion of one's attention to something else will relieve the tension. Try humility to achieve self-discipline, for through it we see ourselves and realize how much patience others have had with us. Be silent for a little while and "get on top" of the situation.²⁸

TRAINING SUPERVISORS

Presumably, supervisors are appointed as such because they have demonstrated leadership, patience and organizational ability, are understanding of people, and have a superior knowledge of methods and books. All these abilities improve by training. This chapter could well be expanded into a fifteen-period badly needed library school course on supervision, including cases for class discussion, given by someone qualified by experience, and enrolling enough persons at one time to justify the cost. While no school can teach the particular methods and procedures of individual libraries, the principles for training and supervision of professional, clerical workers, pages and part-time workers, in all types of libraries, form a considerable body of information.

A few large libraries do carry on training programs, including something on supervision, for their department heads and prospective executives, because they realize such training is essential. The A. L. A. Regional Conference at Fort Collins, Colorado, as long ago as 1949, included a clinic on supervision. Its summary, plus three of the papers, offers many suggestions for individual libraries.²⁹

The majority of public libraries have fewer than a dozen persons responsible for supervision. Like many supervisors in small organizations in other fields they can obtain substantial help by reading books and articles on the subject; the New York and other libraries maintain a file of such material for staff use. They can attend lectures on supervision at a nearby college, or a factory, a school superintendent's meetings, a social service organization, or in some municipal training program.³⁰ Perhaps they can induce an instructor to study the library's operations and focus some of his instruction on library situations, or a course might be given by the extension department of the state college. It seems logical also to look to state commissions and regional headquarters to organize and sponsor such courses by experienced instructors, at district meetings.

When a library has ten or twelve supervisors it should organize a course for them and for their understudies. The waste motion, frustration and lack of morale resulting from inadequate supervision justify remedial action. The outline for a series of lessons with discussion should grow out of the expressed needs of department heads, supervisors and assistants; the topics will then reflect actual situations. To obtain ideas for topical coverage, present the idea of training to the group and ask for suggestions. If a few are primed to respond and someone else to question or object, the discussion can produce a variety of ideas. These can be edited, arranged in logical sequence and sent around as a tentative outline. Individuals can then be interviewed for further criticisms and suggestions. Problem cases can be cited for discussion without embarrassing anyone by identifying the persons concerned. If the instructor is skillful, the total result will be substantial, even in the face of disinterest, lack of imagination and the listener's failure to translate ideas into terms of actual situations.

In planning a series of lessons to teach supervisors how to supervise, we recognize first that this supervising and training must be spread over several categories of workers. Ideas adapted from Nathaniel Stewart³¹ suggest that training for library workers, and therefore for their supervisors, can be broken down into several special aspects:

Types of Training by Level of Personnel

Administrative and supervisory; professional, such as book selecting and advising, reference, children's; subprofessional; secretarial; clerical, such as circulation routines, filing and typing; page work; janitorial; and part-time clerical workers.

Types of Training by Library Objectives

Orientation training in library and departmental objectives; clerical and hand-work routine methods and skills; job relations and personal relations; public

service attitudes and response, e.g., in circulation and reference service; work simplification; specialized subject matter, i.e., for subject and special materials departments; and combined selections from the foregoing aimed to upgrade or promote personnel.

Training Based on Identified Needs for Library Improvement

Needs of the new employee; renewing interest and morale of older employees; arrears of work, e.g., new books lingering along in catalog department; high costs of operation; awareness of not-so-satisfactory service to readers, and the variety of reasons; evidence of improper attitudes; too high absenteeism and turnover (using analysis of exit and other interviews to discover causes); excessive errors, carelessness and sloppiness; changes in procedures or techniques of performing the job or keeping records; new position description requirements; employee rating methods; new ideas from supervisors and other employees and from committees or groups; and special project setups, completely new and perhaps temporary.

Methods of Training "On the Job"

Demonstration and drill; slow-motion analysis of error and waste; tutoring by supervisor; rotating assignments for stimulating variety and to let learners try to find an operation in which they can make better headway; internships, especially for administrative and professional workers; analysis of periodic rating interviews to find strong points and to suggest improvements in weak features; study periods and carefully selected materials; investigation of job content and methods to encourage assistants to suggest improvements; special practice assignments according to special interests and abilities.

How are the foregoing to be integrated in a course given by an instructor to a group, usually a small group? It can be done by careful planning. The "role-playing" method has possibilities—someone plays the part of instructor, another acts as trainee, perhaps a third explains and comments, all giving a prepared demonstration of the teaching-learning process as applied to some part of the work, so that would-be supervisors may see how they are to instruct.

Methods of Training "Off the Job"

These methods are often overlooked in planning a training program, but they can contribute greatly: free conference-discussion but following an outline and kept on the beam; selected readings (several libraries maintain a file of current material, arranged by administrative subject, for staff study); academic courses if available close by (for subject and book knowledge to enrich the job in public departments); simulated situations with "role playing" (for personal relations, assistant-reader contacts, etc.); staff meetings to discuss topics related to the job training; field trips to other libraries and to nearby operations which parallel the library job; professional meetings, for broader viewpoints and morale; and

assignment to similar specialized work in another library when no training is available locally.

Training Materials

Here again the small library finds little appropriate material, but large libraries can use already available training devices, such as filmstrips, TV (possibly through a local school hookup with the Bell telephone system) and sound films on work simplification and on library service. These are available for a larger library to rent or borrow, such as those from Armstrong Cork Co., Aluminum Company of America, Westinghouse Electric Corporation's film "Patterns for Instruction"; some large libraries have them to lend.³² There are also disc and tape recordings of talks on some of the subjects above.³³ Other materials include bulletins or transcripts of training sessions; exhibits, (e.g., display of notable work so the public can see it); charts and diagrams, for example a flow chart of the library's catalog and circulation departments; textbooks and handbooks from other libraries, or from nonlibrary sources, containing chapters or passages pertinent to the local situation; examinations and tests of work; and special studies and reports which often encourage an assistant to dig into something worthwhile, especially if the information can be used administratively.

RATING SUPERVISORY PERFORMANCE

Any list of qualifications of a good supervisor portrays an impossible paragon. It may be more helpful to list some specific supervisory criteria, adapted from several sources.³⁴

1. Do you lead without ordering or being arbitrary?
2. Do you learn to know each assistant as a person and as a worker?
3. Do you see that each worker understands what is expected of him, at all times?
4. Do you know the details of each job so that you can teach it?
5. Do you plan and assign the work to keep all aspects flowing smoothly and promptly and to keep all hands constructively and equally busy?
6. Do you instruct carefully, clearly and tactfully?
7. Do you explain adequately the reasons for each method and instructions?
8. Do you give responsibilities to each worker so that you are developing his own initiative, thinking and accomplishment?
9. Do you word your requests so as not to antagonize or imply superior knowledge, wisdom or control over your assistants?
10. Do you keep close scrutiny over the service given to readers by each assistant to see if it can be improved?
11. Do you look into difficulties, conflicts and errors with care and patience, getting all the facts and viewpoints so as to reach a fair solution?

12. Do you correct, criticize or comment on assistants' work in a manner that will not embarrass or let them down?

13. Do you handle grievances and gripes promptly and impersonally, without sidestepping?

14. Do you treat all with equal fairness and cordiality, without favoritism?

15. Do you respect the confidences of your staff?

16. Do you recognize, give credit and show appreciation for good work, while giving kindly and tactful correction and criticism when it will improve the work?

17. Do you keep up with, understand and pass on to your staff the library's policies and decisions on the library's and your department's affairs so that your staff believes in and shares your loyalty to the library?

18. Are your own "on time" habits, your cordial, straightforward but not intimate relations with your workers, and your attention to appearance, neatness, and other daily relations such that you represent the spirit of friendly dignity, helpfulness and sincerity which should characterize the library as a public service institution?

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PART 3.

Administration of Public Departments or Activities

INTRODUCTION: ATTITUDES AFFECTING PUBLIC SERVICES

The public library is created and organized to give the fullest and most consequential service possible to the greatest number of citizens, in the belief that the worth of a book is in its use and that books and people should be brought together in a meaningful relationship. In introducing this series of ten chapters on the management of the library's public service departments, four general viewpoints are pertinent for the entire staff to share: a sense of purpose, a substantial knowledge of books, the desire to serve and a willingness to please.

A Sense of Purpose

Chapters 1 and 2 have discussed library objectives and functions and outlined a program for serving the whole community. To some persons such topics appear theoretical, difficult or unimportant. But no public library achieves greatness unless both the board and the staff have a clear sense of purpose, keyed to the spirit and needs of the times. This sense of purpose is at its strongest when knit into the fabric of the organization through staff experience and discussion based on observation of other libraries, on reading and on close attention to each reader's success in finding maximum service.

This applies particularly to public service personnel. After a few months' employment, each employee should be able to tell his friends and family reasonably well what the library is trying to do. But the library's overall purpose will come alive only if he can see how his own department's work and indeed his own job relates to that purpose. The difference between the man who was cutting stone and the one who was helping to build a great cathedral is paralleled in libraries. Is the desk assistant simply handing out books, or does he feel that he is helping people to lead fuller and richer lives? As new problems and conditions arise in each person's work, the best solutions are those which reflect the overall purpose of the library to serve its clientele.

A Knowledge of Books

Next to knowing what he is doing and why, a staff member needs knowledge of the library's varied forms of print and nonprint. Unless he knows books and how to find them and how to find out *about* them, he is poorly prepared to serve the public. Knowledge of books means an ever-growing acquaintance with titles and their authors, bibliographical history, library call numbers and physical locations, but especially their contents and their values, uses and present and past popularity with readers. This requires reading many books—in part

or in whole—and reading about books. Those who lack a real interest in books, the habit of reading and the vision and conviction that books can be powerful helpers to citizens may well ask themselves whether they are in the right occupation.

Some perception of the intellectual content of books marks the professional from the technician, the more effective from the less effective, and the subject literature specialist from the generalist, because it enables the librarian to compare materials on the same subject but of different form, and intelligently to use each alone or in combination with others. Every librarian needs to have this spark of knowledge, or he might as well be handling shoes or canned foods. Such knowledge has its roots in a librarian's formal education, but it must be updated by continual reading, by in-service training, by book discussion, and by authorization to read important books and journals on library time. A good librarian reads eight to ten hours a week on his own time. Without such knowledge of books the library staff does a poor job in selecting new titles for purchase, in cataloging and classification, in compiling booklists, in handling group activity programs and in serving individual readers.

A Desire to Serve

Fifty years ago, individual librarians labored in a wilderness of new problems and public indifference, but they were dedicated missionaries. Public libraries are accepted today, but many library employees do their work routinely. If public libraries were supported by readers' fees and there were direct competition for those fees, each public service staff member would no doubt act as though his salary depended on the quality of service he rendered, and on the number of repeat customers he developed. The reader should feel that the assistant he meets is interested in him, diligent to understand his problems, and anxious to see that he gets what he wishes. These impressions and attitudes, and the quality of service received, make up the reader's mental image of the library. In short, good service means that the customer gets what he wants or the next available thing to it, but is not sent away empty-handed.

The librarian can promote the desire to serve by development of a formal policy statement, by appropriate in-service training,¹ by appointing and promoting persons imbued with the spirit of service, by systematic observation, by assuring himself that supervision is good in each department and branch, by soliciting staff members' and patrons' comments and reactions, and most of all by his own attitude and example. What the chief makes clear that he expects done first and best will probably be so treated by his colleagues.

A Willingness to Please

"Willingness to please" encompasses a whole list of specifics, from courtesy to patrons to modern and attractive furniture and surroundings. Many public libraries are less than distinguished in this regard, probably not as good as the average retail store. Simple courtesy includes good telephone manners, the pleas-

¹ See Footnotes for Chapter 17.

ant smile of greeting, remembering a patron's name and reading tastes and willingness to stop a routine job, or talking to a colleague, to serve a patron. An assistant should check to be sure that a patron is served when he is referred from one desk or department to another, and he should never seem bored when he has to explain to one more reader how to use the card catalog or other tool. All these are factors of great moment to readers. Courtesy is invaluable, and it costs nothing.

Perhaps public libraries need not pick beauty queens for circulation desk assistants but there is no denying that personable men and women will be more pleasing to readers, other things being equal. Good grooming and a smart appearance are highly compatible with good education, cultural enthusiasm and knowledge of books, and would seem as desirable at the library's most conspicuous service point as in any successful appliance dealer's salesroom—and for the same reason. Best of all is the friendly, outgoing personality which warms all it touches, a prime consideration in recruitment and appointment of public service staff. What happens when a staff member meets and serves a patron is the acid test of a library's service program and of its whole administration. The patron should feel that he is being treated with courtesy by one who is alert, pleasant, competent, and interested in his problem.

CHAPTER 17

Administration of Adult Circulation Services

Historically, lending books to readers was the sole public service function of public libraries. Reference work came later,² and subject departmentation much later. Circulation work is still the most important function of public libraries, at least quantitatively, but in recent years librarians have tended to neglect the promotion of general adult reading. In part this is because in many libraries such circulation work has been identified with the mechanics of charging and discharging and related routines. In part it is because public libraries have developed new and important functions which in the eyes of some seem more glamorous than promoting reading. And it is undoubtedly true that the effective promotion of general reading by adults is a difficult matter, hard to evaluate and plagued by persistent problems which have defied solution. Nevertheless, serving and promoting adult reading is the main reason why there are public libraries.

In the last few years numerous libraries have developed an adult services department, whose functions and coverage are somewhat confused. Audio-visual and adult group activities are included and have come to occupy a large part of the attention of the librarians and libraries which attempt to gather all adult services into one department. The net outcome is often the submerging of knowledgeable interpretive adult book and reader services, whether circulating or reference, while the pressure from increasing school pupil demands has still further diverted staff time from work with adults. Inevitably the circulation department and its functions are downgraded.

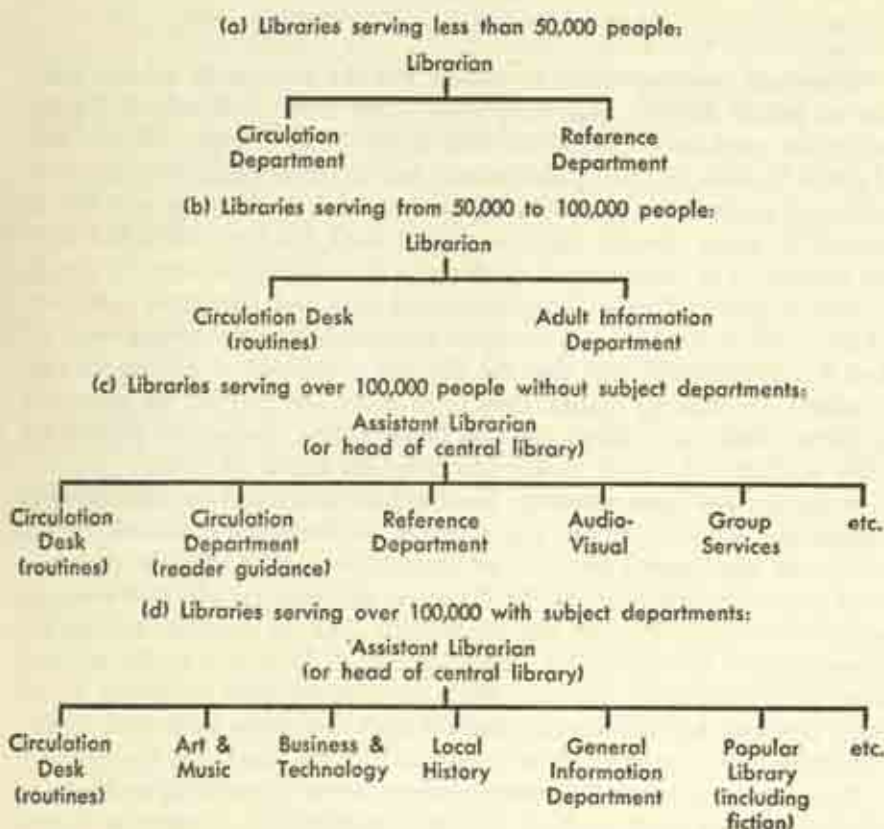
This chapter assumes the primary importance of stimulating and serving adult circulating book needs as the main function of a circulation department, or an adult services department, and shows its relationship to what is termed adult education, and to the reference function. And it includes discussion of the routines and records which go with book circulation but which comprise only a secondary aspect of a well-rounded circulation department.

ORGANIZATION AND RESOURCES OF CIRCULATION SERVICES

Organization

Most libraries serving fewer than 15,000 people have no choice but to offer all public services, or at least all adult services, at one desk and through one person. This will probably be true also in branches lending under 75,000 books a year. In libraries serving from 20,000 to 50,000 people (in-

Diagram 17-1. Overhead for adult services



cluding large branch libraries), the two adult public service departments or desks are likely to be those of circulation and reference (see (a) of Fig. 17-1). Through the years many circulation departments developed a num-

ber of other functions and some important techniques of reader guidance and the promotion of reading.

In central libraries of cities with 50,000 to 100,000 population, there tends to be a separate agency under various names to handle the routines of lending books, and thus free the professional assistants from clerical routines. In such cases the reference department is often broadened in scope and purpose to include reader guidance and the other professional aspects of circulation work (see (b) of Fig. 17-1). A separate circulation department is a possibility but would be too small and too much a duplicate of the reference department (in its concern with the whole adult non-fiction collection) to be economical or efficient. On the other hand, a department which combines reference work and reader guidance will inevitably emphasize one function at the expense of the other; subject literature specialization by the professional staff would help, or the designation of one or more persons to give special attention to the reading guidance function in general and to adult fiction in particular.

In a library serving over 100,000 people, the situation is often complicated by the presence of additional adult public services which have been added one at a time as separate departments. Where this is so and where the circulation department was left separate from the reference department (part (c) of Fig. 17-1), it will be found that neither reader guidance nor reference service is well developed, because both cover the whole wide field of knowledge and books. On the other hand, in libraries of this size there is a strong trend for the organization of subject departments which combine both circulating and reference books and both reader guidance and reference service (see part (d) of Fig. 17-1). These subject departments have demonstrated that these functions can be combined in special subject fields because they do not have to attempt to cover the whole range of knowledge. Usually there is a Popular Library with both fiction and non-fiction, designed for the general reader who comes to browse. Less desirable is the combination of this agency with the general information department, under the name of a general service department or adult service department, because of the double liability of a wide subject scope (and a much larger book collection than in the case above of a library serving from 50,000 to 100,000), and of multiple functions. In the very large libraries with well-developed subject departments, one person is often appointed, with appropriate assistance to supervise the Popular Library, and another to coordinate and develop readers' advisory service throughout the system.

Staff

However organized or named, circulation services will continue to be a major activity of public libraries on a larger and larger scale, and they may

best be improved by attention to the staff involved, to the book resources, to the physical quarters, and to continual promotion. The quality of staff members assigned to circulation work is crucial. They should not be chosen as technicians preoccupied with supervising routine processes, but for their educational background, wide acquaintance with books, and liking for and interest in the endless variety of people and their needs and wants. The head and first assistant need also to have administrative ability, to supervise the professional and clerical staff and to develop adult book use in the community. The head should spend some of his time in direct service to patrons. Even in the largest libraries this first-hand experience is vital to understanding what goes on, and to decision making. All department personnel—professional and nonprofessional—should be able to meet people easily, to make them feel comfortable and at ease, and to handle their requests courteously and expeditiously. They need both the vision to see what can be done and the know-how to do it.

Books

Selecting and servicing the library's circulating adult books (assuming there are no subject departments) involves all the professional questions involved in book selection, discussed in Chapter 27. A perennial question is the relative emphasis to be given fiction vs. nonfiction reading. This can lead to a long and vexing argument, but only a few points will be made here. There is little evidence to justify getting light fiction on the grounds that it will be used to lead some readers to more worthwhile things. The weight of experience is to the contrary. If a circulation department chooses to have recreational materials in its collection, it should justify them for inherent values. The question is becoming less pressing as motion pictures, television, paper-covered books, magazines, and radio supply ever more fully the needs of people for the sort of experience they get in reading light love, western or detective stories. Most public libraries find proportionately less demand for that sort of book now than ten or twenty years ago. And no public library need go to one extreme or the other. In the broad middle ground are such devices as using paperbacked books, simplifying the processing of those books which are bought (to the point of not cataloging them), establishing a quantitative quota for the purchase of such titles, exchanging them between branches or even between libraries,³ or renting pay-duplicate copies. In conclusion, a library should lend at least as great a proportion of serious and consequential nonfiction (55 per cent is fair and realistic) as of adult fiction (45 per cent is a desirable maximum). Some libraries have adopted lending routines which do not automatically record the different kinds of books borrowed, but any such library can and should analyze its circulation one day a month to produce a fair estimate of its annual adult fiction and adult nonfiction percentages. Such figures should

appear in every library's annual report and in U. S. Office of Education and other comparative tables.

The pay-duplicate rental collection helps relieve the demands for current books, not only "light" reading but high-quality fiction and nonfiction. Use of such a collection was once a controversial issue among librarians, but today a pattern has been worked out which is effective and satisfactory to all except those few who feel that a public library should have no service charges. A 1959 study of 110 libraries found that 69 favored and 20 opposed having a rental collection.⁴ If this is entitled a "pay-duplicate collection" it helps make clear that there are free copies also, as noted in Chapter 27.

The circulation department has other specific responsibilities in the maintenance and improvement of the collection, for most effective use by and for the public. These may involve the prompt ordering of books, before publication date when possible, the methods by which the circulating and other public service staffs have a say in decisions on cataloging and classification, the arrangement of books on the shelves, their display, their repair and rebinding, their periodic review and the ultimate withdrawal of a large proportion of them. The circulation department should see that as nearly as possible the books which will be needed are up-to-date, in good condition and attractive format, without deadwood, available in sufficient quantities and arranged so as to be most accessible. The degree of success so achieved in any given library is a good indication of the effectiveness of that library in promoting the general use of books by adult readers.

Quarters

Usually the circulation department occupies a sizable area on the main floor next to the main entrance, symbolic of its central importance. More people enter the library to borrow and return books than for any other one purpose. Assistants who work at the loan desk need adequate lighting and near-by shelves for the sorting of returned books, for reserved books waiting to be picked up, for books needing repair and for snags which can be expected under any system. The old U-shaped loan desk is found increasingly less often, as discussed in Wheeler and Githens,⁵ especially in the case of libraries adopting a transaction-card system of charging. Few will regret the change to the more compact sectional desk of today, usually placed at the side of the entrance to avoid creating a psychological barrier. Current study is needed in most libraries to improve the existing physical arrangement and equipment as well as work methods of circulation departments. Professional staff members no longer have the personal acquaintance with patrons and their reading which they had when they worked behind the loan desk and which readers crave; accordingly loan desk clerical assistants should be chosen in part because they have some interest in and knowledge

of books and concern for reader satisfaction, and will refer readers to the trained staff. There are other ways by which professionally trained librarians can develop excellent reader contacts without having to take on the burden of circulation routines, chiefly by being stationed closely enough to the readers to encourage questions and discussion which will help more adults select more and better books.

Facilities for the book collection itself require ample shelf space for all books now and expected in the near future. Many libraries place the newer books near the entrance, or a collection of popular books on a range of open-faced bookcases. A-frames, display troughs and racks, tables and chairs, slanting shelves and other devices are useful for special groups of books, for periodicals and for spotlighting new materials and encouraging the inspection of books. It is well to provide a variety of modern chairs, from the usual study chair to the semilounge type, to match the variety of conditions under which different people find it comfortable to read. Further, these chairs and tables should be interspersed with the books, as much as possible.

The professional staff needs working space separated from but near the lending and return desks. This may be only a single conspicuous desk in the reader area, preferably with a nearby, quiet, enclosed space in which a reader's helper may consult with patrons. If at all possible the desks for the circulation librarians should be in the open and near the books, so that readers may see them and be encouraged to consult them. If the circulation and reference functions are close together or combined in one department, there might be two separate desks—appropriately labeled—to allow patrons readily to apply for two different types of service.

THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF ADULT BOOK USE

By definition, librarians are persons convinced of the values inherent in the reading of books appropriate for the purpose of a given reader. The professional part of circulation work is concerned with this goal of helping readers to choose books which are most nearly what they need and can best use. Individual reading guidance is an art, and depends greatly on such intangibles as judgment and insight and knowledge of books. It is difficult therefore to be specific and precise in prescribing how to develop and encourage meaningful use of books by adults. The topics to be discussed here are, first, the direct approach of reader's advisory service; second, the indirect approach of encouraging adult reading by booklists, book displays, publicity and other measures; third, the role of the circulation department in encouraging adult reading by teaching the use of books and libraries; fourth, the need for systematic maintenance of staff knowledge of community interests; and finally the evaluation of all this by reader surveys.

Reader's Advisory Service

By reader's advisory service is meant the face-to-face relationship between a patron with a request for a book or books on a given subject or of a given kind, and a librarian with the skills and knowledge adequate to answer the request. In the thirty years or so between World Wars I and II, many large American public libraries developed this service, as a special function of specifically designated librarians.⁶ But in many cases it has been abandoned; and the pattern of a separate and formally organized reader's advisory service appears not to be applicable for most American public libraries, primarily because of the great amount of time consumed and the resulting high cost per unit of service. The modern goal or standard is that every professional librarian serving the adult public, and especially in a circulation department, shall be adequately educated and trained and available to give reader's advisory service. Though many requests so received are fairly simple and clear cut, involving relatively little knowledge of books or of reader reactions to them, professional assistance in elementary reading guidance will in general mean the difference between readers getting or not getting the books they need and want.⁷

Two simple suggestions for carrying on this informal and diffused type of service are (a) to have a reader's information desk, manned by a competent professional librarian, close to the general collection of new and popular adult books; and (b) to have the librarian on duty constantly circulating among patrons, offering help to those who appear to need it. This "floor work" is simple in concept and effective and welcome in practice, yet it is badly neglected in some libraries, and needs drastic improvement. The essential difference between a warehouse collection of books and a public library is not the loaning or disbursing function, which can be done equally well by both, but the advising function of the library.

Organization and machinery and equipment mean little compared with the staff member who knows books and likes people and is definitely assigned time to exert himself to bring them together, hour after hour. Libraries should pay high salaries to persons in the pattern of Helen Haines and Virginia Kirkus, to whom the community can look for book advice and who will be burdened by neither paperwork nor administrative duties. This is the library's true adult education and it is naturally tied to the circulation department.

Booklists, Book Displays, and Publicity

To develop general adult reading, the first essential is a conviction that methods can be found to interest and attract two or three times as many as the present small percentage of intelligent adult citizens using the library. These promotional methods are far less costly than reader's advisory

service, and can reach a widely spread larger audience, informing readers and potential readers of what is available in the library, stimulating or motivating them to read in general or to seek out specific books, and guiding them in their choice of reading.

Book arrangement on the open shelves is a form of book display. Newer books are more often called for than older ones, cleaner and more attractive ones than those dirty and shopworn, books in colorful bindings than those in dull and solid colors, and books on shelves which are uncrowded and not too high or low than those which are jammed and not easily seen or reached.⁸ Most libraries usually have a special place for such groups of books as the newest acquisitions, or collections on appropriate seasonal topics. A more systematic application of this practice is the idea of reader interest classification cutting across but not replacing the Dewey decimal classification, in semipermanent but not inflexible groupings, and designed to express, by topic and by choice of books thereunder, dominant themes of current interest. Assigning the topic headings is a task for the professional staff, and there are technical problems in coding these headings on the books and on their catalog cards. The results are of value only to the reader who is not looking for a specific title, but there has been enough successful experience with this type of book classification, notably in the Detroit Public Library, to warrant consideration for its use in branch libraries and in general collections of not over 10,000 adult books.⁹

Library publicity is a direct encouragement for adult reading and book use. Any enterprising circulation librarian can soon choose and easily adapt many successful devices, noted in Chapters 9 and 30. Department work should be so organized as to suggest a steady stream of topics and approaches for publicity on books, book use and the encouragement of adult reading in general and for specific community groups. The goal is to relate books and reading to events and values given high importance by the public rather than as ends in themselves. Booklists, displays and publicity are best used when they are integrated with each other and in appropriate combination with other approaches.

Teaching the Use of Books and Libraries

With the shift in primary emphasis from the early function of acquiring reasonably large collections and organizing them for use, to the later function of encouraging book use by making it easier to borrow books, new ways must be found to extend and promote service to more people in more intensive, purposeful, specialized ways. A third main function has been increasingly recognized, teaching people how to use books and libraries more efficiently for their own benefit, as discussed in Chapter 30. A trained reader's assistant when asked to recommend a good novel on World War

He may hand the patron the book in question, but he may also show him the lists used and the method by which he arrived at his choice. Several libraries have sponsored classes in adult developmental reading and some have purchased and made available various of the many simple machines now on the market for this individual "rapid-reading" training; other libraries consider this secondary to inducing more adults to read at all. In helping adult readers use libraries, there are several good guides to general reading,¹⁰ and many public libraries produce pamphlets on their own local resources and services, especially the organization and use of the card catalog.¹¹ Effective ways are yet to be found to teach adults, including writers and college professors, how to use books and libraries and how the library can help them, as discussed in Chapter 30. People have to relearn skills like these at each main stage of their lives as their own needs change and as they face different circumstances.

Knowledge of Community Interests

To encourage adult book use, circulation librarians need to be informed on the current interests and needs of citizens, preferably without going into more details than are suggested in Chapter 2. The activities of local organizations through which library contacts can be made, including news of municipal department projects, are reported in the pages of the daily paper, and can be ascertained through personal acquaintances in various areas and strata of the community, and with the help of other staff members. Such information helps in the day-by-day selecting of new books and in deciding how many titles to get on a given subject and on different levels of treatment and readability, in choosing subjects for booklists and book displays, in reminding persons and groups by postcard notices and newspaper columns of new books available, in planning the library's own program of adult activities and in trying new devices.

Readership Surveys

Readership surveys aim to discover the relevant characteristics of the people who use the library, the types of books they use, their satisfaction with those books and with the services of the library, the degree to which their needs for books and library service have been so met and the existence of needs not recognized or not met. Betelson's *The Library Public*,¹² issued as a volume in the Public Library Inquiry, summarizes all known readership studies from 1930-1947, and offers valuable ideas for circulation librarians. To help public libraries give better service, many more new and different studies are needed, by properly equipped research organizations and of reliable samples on a national scale. As practical measures at the local level,

every library should keep adult fiction, adult nonfiction, juvenile and total circulation figures, and should analyze these by comparing them with the Index of American Public Library Circulation¹² and by calculating per capita.

The general conclusions of the usual type of reader survey can be predicted in advance. In almost every community, not many adults use the library, or use it heavily, or for serious reading, or with effectiveness and success. Some of the purposes of this book, as discussed in Chapter 1, are to encourage librarians actively to promote and publicize reading and information seeking as a desirable habit for every intelligent citizen, and to show them how to do it. Readership surveys may help by refining the measurement of results, but the needs and opportunities are already so obvious as to jar any librarian's complacency. What is needed in the 1960's is resolution and action to improve and increase book and reader services to the millions of American adults who are not now using them.

ADULT EDUCATION

Definition

Adult education work in public libraries is sometimes defined to encompass many of the activities (described earlier in this chapter) which seek to encourage and guide the reading of adults. In the last few years the term has come to have the connotation of work with groups of people, and is perhaps the natural reaction to the earlier approach of individual reader's advisory service. The circulation department seems to be the agency likely to be most concerned with such activities, though in some large libraries there is a special department or office of group services.¹³ In many libraries these group activities are receiving more attention than main-line adult reading and informational services.

Services to Already Organized Groups

The adult education activities of libraries which are most often found, are most easily and economically performed, and are most natural additions to their other operations consist of book-related services to groups already organized and functioning, such as service clubs, local chapters of professional and trade associations, P. T. A.'s, civic, and social welfare and hobby groups. These ready-made possibilities for services can take many forms, such as displaying at group meetings books appropriate to their interests, the preparation of booklists for the special programs of the group and dis-

tributing them to the members, the loan of films to a group, advice to program chairmen of topics for their meetings, setting up a reserve shelf for materials expected to be used in a group's continuing program, talks on books or on library service to club members and others, and just providing a meeting room free of charge.

Library-Sponsored Adult Education Programs

The activities and programs sponsored or co-sponsored by public libraries are so varied that no dominant pattern or theme of any permanence has yet emerged. In part this is because public libraries operate on the frontiers of adult education, and in part because no one has yet developed a method of library adult education which is so eminently successful, especially for use with large numbers of people, that it deserves to become a standard pattern or technique. The book discussion group represents the nearest to such a generalizable technique, but it has not made the grade. Library after library has discovered that such groups appeal to a relatively small percentage of people, that constant support is necessary, and that the mortality rate is uncomfortably high.¹⁶

Public libraries have presented discussion groups, individual lectures and series of lectures, poetry and play readings, public film showings and record concerts, book reviews for the general public, forums or institutes of some magnitude, and even more or less formal courses, co-sponsored by academic institutions or using funds given for that purpose. Do the people so affected read more of the library's books on the subject in question, or read them with greater insight? Usually the only evidence offered is of attendance; but the people who attend adult education programs in general are those who need them the least,¹⁶ and this is presumably as true in the case of the public library as in that of other agencies. These estimates of results have to be weighed against the time and money consumed. Small wonder that a recent research study of 260 public librarians concluded that they are greatly confused as to what they are trying to do in adult education.¹⁷

The public library is not the main or even a major agency of the group type of adult education.¹⁸ On the other hand, few libraries have adequately developed those functions which are primary, such as reference service and adult reading. The essence of librarianship is the unit combination of the individual reader and the book. Anything which contributes to the number of such combinations, or to the success with which readers and books are matched, is desirable and worthwhile; anything else is unlikely to find a lasting place in the practice of librarianship. This seems to agree with the conclusion of the Public Library Inquiry, that the American public library is not likely to become the people's university (if we mean group or class-

room instruction), but will become the library of the people's university.¹⁹

CIRCULATION ROUTINES

We come from the complex and formless topic of adult education to the detailed, practical consideration of circulation routines! This aspect of the circulation function involves much repetitive and routine work. It is important in itself but attention to it should not be allowed to crowd out the developmental, the creative, the professional aspects of the circulation function of libraries. In brief the circulation head should plan the department's work, so that not over a quarter of his time is needed to supervise the staff on routines, another fourth is used for general management of the department and half for promoting and improving book use by individuals. Over the years, steady progress has been made in reducing and simplifying circulation routines and in utilizing machines and nonprofessional personnel, so that theoretically there would be more time for reader service.

Borrower Registration

The history of the registration of public library borrowers is an example of the steady pressure to reduce the complexity and the importance of routines. Only a generation or so ago, an applicant for a library card was expected to give a good deal of information about himself and one or two references who were in either the current telephone or city directories, and to reregister every three years or so. These requirements were steadily whittled down, in part because they did not succeed in eliminating all losses of unreturned books and in part because newer systems of charging books made formal registration unnecessary. Modern charging systems usually result in a record of the name and address of the borrower of each book loaned, and all the more likely to be of current value if based not on a library card issued up to three years ago, but on any other document in the possession of the patron which establishes that he is who he says he is and that he lives where he says he lives. Many public libraries give service to nonresidents, at no or very small charge. This is not only unfair to taxpayers but has probably held back the formation of other libraries and of county or regional units. The modern trend is to charge a nonresident at least as much as the local per-capita tax support and perhaps twice that much since he will probably borrow books for his whole family.

Various simplifications of borrower registration have been devised,²⁰ and some libraries (Queens Borough, N. Y.; Stockton, Calif.; and Wayne County, Mich., among others) have eliminated registration. Only an alphabetical record is kept of those who owe the library books or fines above a

certain amount; with copies of this list at every service point, unreturned books have not increased significantly as a percentage of total circulation and economies have been realized in supplies and in elimination of paperwork, along with favorable public reaction. The value of borrower registration in analyzing public library use is minimal, because an unknown number borrow books on other people's cards or read those borrowed by other persons, and many of those registered make little or no use of the library. With transaction-card charging on the increase, borrower registration is evidently on the way out, except in the small libraries. The first principle of modern circulation routines is that readers shall find it easy to qualify for borrowing books.

Charging Systems

For several decades the Newark system of recording the loan of books was standard in American public libraries, and more public libraries are still using it or a simplified version of it than use any other system. In the last twenty-five years or so, several new systems have been developed, and are well described in the literature.²¹ A public library charging system has only one main function to serve—and at the lowest possible cost—and that is to reveal who has which books when they are overdue. Since only about 5 per cent of all loans are ever overdue—at least overdue long enough to require a first notice—an efficient circulation system is one which will require a minimum of handling of the information on the 95 per cent of all loans in order to make available what is needed for the other 5 per cent. Finally, since American public library circulation is currently in excess of 500 million books a year, the charging system should be as simple as possible, involving little time or effort to operate, and able to be mechanized so as to reduce the possibility of error and to handle the large volume.

Every system now available has its shortcomings and limitations as well as its advantages and strong points, and better systems are sure to be devised in the future. The most revolutionary of those now in use is the English token charging system introduced by McColvin in the Westminster Public Library of London.²² Once a year each patron presents at the library the standard number of tokens or books provided by the library, or pays a flat fee for each one missing. The charging and discharging of books is simply a one-for-one exchange of tokens and books, with the date due a reminder to the patron and for assessing overdue fines. In some ways this system is consistent with the Browne system, the traditional British charging system. It seems to be little known or used in America (West Orange, N. J., is one case). It is unlikely that many U. S. citizens would favor a method involving the use of tokens.

In this country the main line of development in larger libraries has been the use of serially-numbered transaction cards, one for each book loaned, as

pioneered by Shaw at Gary, about 1940. Since then it has been applied to a variety of photographic devices, audio recording machines, handwritten charges, edge-punched and machine-punched cards, and numbered slips for one-time use. The great advantage of t-card charging is that it eliminates the slipping or discharging process, probably the greatest shortcoming and most time-consuming part of the traditional handcharging systems. T-card charging is flexible, allowing for many different possible combinations, such as once-a-week due dates, one loan period or more, formal borrowers' cards or no, etc.; it is relatively easy and economical to convert to and from; it is applicable to both small and large libraries; and it may be mechanized or used as a hand system.²³ Installation of a t-card system may not result in an appreciable and direct saving of staff, but it should save some time on slipping and centralized overdues, though a loan desk requires a minimum staff at all times. So the second principle of modern circulation routines is that the charging system shall be able to handle an ever larger volume of loans with no increase in staff, and that the loan of books and the canceling of the loan be done at minimum cost and with minimum error.

Rules for the Loan of Books

Under this heading fall a number of specific points which need to be decided, explained to patrons and staff alike and reviewed from time to time. The recent trend has been to set no limit on the number of books which a patron may borrow, nor any ratio of fiction and nonfiction. The usual length of loan period in 70 per cent of all public libraries is two weeks subject to renewal, with new and popular books loaned for only one week and nonrenewable.²⁴ The others, mostly large libraries, loan books for up to four weeks and do not renew them, partly as a convenience to borrowers, partly in the hope of reducing the number of overdues, and partly to simplify the operation of the charging system. No factual studies were found which prove or disprove these points, but it seems logical that the longer the loan period the more the turnover of books is reduced. Book budgets have steadily decreased in proportion to total library budgets, and nearly every library feels the need for more books and complains of their lack. There are few libraries which do not have too many "reserves" backed up—one of the best measures of book demand. If the objective of all charging systems is, as it should be, to bring books to the most persons at the least cost, it appears more than inconsistent to lend more books to a reader and let him keep them longer than need be, when other persons are waiting to use them. The length of loan should not be dictated by some mechanical device in order to save clerical time and money, while losing book money from unnecessarily slower turnover. The four-week reader may be pleased but he is depriving another reader. Many libraries print on their book pockets a request for prompt return.

Overdues

The matter of overdues illustrates the value of rethinking a technical problem in the light of accumulated experience and modern conditions. It appears that the number and incidence of overdue books can be reduced but not eliminated. Some libraries have tried charging no overdue fine and some have levied a heavier than usual fine; either way a few books are always kept overdue (about 4 to 5 for every 100 borrowed) and some are never recovered (about 2 to 3 out of every 10,000 loaned). This low figure deserves publicizing as evidence that public libraries are not wrapped in red tape but are effective guardians of public property, to see that each book is kept in uninterrupted use. Overdue book notices are a service to patrons, not a right to which they are entitled; and one or two such notices per overdue book are as effective and less expensive than more would be.

The secret seems to lie in handling overdue notices efficiently (e.g., as by a form postcard not specifying author or title but mailed third class at a bulk rate and requesting return information as to change of address), and prompt follow-up of delinquent borrowers within a week or two, before the case gets old, in this day of great mobility. Final penalties, such as refusing the patron any further loans or even taking extreme cases to court, are desirable for their value in deterring others, and in publicizing the library's concern for the interests of other readers awaiting the books rather than in rules for their own sake, or for getting the books back to the shelves to stand idle there. Commercial concerns, doing the volume of business which public libraries do, expect and experience a certain rate of loss of items stolen, purchased on credit and never paid for, or bought on the installment plan and repossessed but not for full value. Such losses are part of the cost of doing business, and they are probably less in libraries than in retail business.

Most modern charging systems facilitate the handling of overdues by making directly available the name and address of the borrower and the author and title of the book. Renewals are not so easily handled, at least by telephone; and when the book is presented for renewal by the borrower in person it amounts in effect to a new charge or loan. Reserved books too are not easily handled by transaction-card systems for they require a separate file of reserved titles against which all returned books must be checked. With a little effort the system can be made to work, but those librarians who realize the value and appreciation which readers feel for the reserve privilege will favor a charging system which facilitates it.²⁸ Other points on which procedures must be adopted include lost books and payment for them or penalties for nonpayment, damages to books and other library materials, duplicate borrowers' cards, lost transaction cards, etc.

The circulation department will make frequent studies of its rules and initiate recommendations for their improvement, subject to review by other

interested staff members and the librarian. Major rules should be formally adopted by the trustees after they have heard the pros and cons of points on which there may be reader objections. There should also be some recognition of the librarian's authority to make exceptions. The rules should then be printed for distribution to patrons, especially when they register for a library card, and to all library employees. Staff members who serve the public should have systematic and periodic instruction and review of these rules, together with an explanation as to why the rules are the way they are, and amplified directions on how to apply them to various types of cases. Even if a general staff manual is not feasible, the circulation rules and their interpretation should be available in a typed or mimeographed form for staff members to consult. Any such set of rules will probably need modification every three or four years; they should be reviewed by a staff committee, and some of them tested by collecting appropriate new data to see if they are still functioning as expected. So the third principle of modern public library circulation routines is that rules for the loan of books should be made to justify themselves in imposing no more controls or limitations than are clearly necessary to secure the desired results.

Statistics and Records

In the old days, circulation reports showed daily, monthly or annual circulation by the ten main divisions of the Dewey decimal classification system; and some modern libraries with a mechanized charging system have made wonderfully complex cross-analysis of data on books borrowed. It is doubtful if there is any real value in such records, in view of the many shortcomings in all data of books borrowed, such as whether the books borrowed are all read, read equally, read completely and read only by the persons who borrowed them or by others in place of or in addition to them.²⁹

The most elementary figures, and the most valuable, are of total circulation. Even here there is a diversity of practice with regard to counting renewals, nonbook items, loans of books for classroom use, etc. Add to this the inevitable arithmetic errors, the use of estimates by some libraries, and the suspected falsification of data in a few cases, and the result is a serious limitation to the comparison of circulation in one library with that of another. A group of libraries, especially if known or selected as representative, constitutes a more nearly reliable basis of comparison,³² and of course comparing one library's circulation in a given year with that of earlier years is valid, if no major changes in procedure of counting were made. Adult fiction, adult nonfiction, juvenile and total loans are the only circulation data which every library should have to report regularly, for the library as a whole and for each agency separately. Transaction-card charging systems do not usually allow for the automatic cumulation of these subtotals (as they

do for the grand total); but analysis of the circulation for one day a month under any system (with annual cumulation and derivation of total percentages of these categories) gives results very close to what complete counting of the year's circulation would give, and at much lower cost.

Standards for per-capita circulation were discussed in Chapter 8, and a 55 to 45 per cent division of adult circulation between nonfiction and fiction was suggested earlier in this chapter. Questions asked by patrons for factual information or for reading guidance will be discussed in the next chapter. Spot checks or analysis of circulation for a day or a week will in most cases be enough for any specific purpose, for example, to ascertain how many books are borrowed by patrons from an area served by contract. Libraries badly need a simple and more nearly adequate measure of use, especially in terms of the books and other materials loaned to patrons for home use, and some library school student or assistant will receive professional immortality when he evolves it. Until then, however, the fourth principle of modern public library circulation routines is that the records and statistics kept regularly should be few, simple and obviously justified by their meaning and use.

Shelf Work

The most time-consuming circulation routine, and the one least affected so far by machines or modern thinking, is the work of replacing on the shelves the many books which have been returned by borrowers or used in the library. Human error is inevitable in performing this task, and since readers often put books in the wrong place on open shelves, the books frequently must be individually examined to insure accurate arrangement; this is called "reading the shelves." A third type of task is to find and bring from the stacks or open shelves the books and periodicals desired by patrons or by the professional librarians. Because so much of this work involves lifting or carrying and being on one's feet, it is usually done by high school or college students working part-time or by other young people, typically called "pages." Usually they also serve at the loan desk, charging out books, discharging them, registering borrowers, handling reserves, etc.²⁷

Because of the youth of most pages and resulting high turnover, it is important that their supervisor be particularly good in teaching the jobs to be done, and able to maintain good relations with his assistants while enforcing standards of service and of businesslike conduct. Much can be learned in this connection from the experience of school librarians, who typically operate with no paid clerical help at all and with only volunteer student assistants; these may work only an hour or so each week, and usually for not more than a year or two. As a result, school librarians have to devise effective oral and written training methods for a number of student

assistants, and to analyze each job into work units which can be easily taught and then be performed in relatively short stretches of time.²⁸

In most libraries, more part-time employees will work in the circulation department than any other, and all such employees in the central library might well be supervised by the circulation librarian or by the specially qualified person he designates to be their supervisor. This would allow shifting of pages when needed and would enable them to perform a wider variety of tasks. It would also be conducive to better training of such young people, and to the use of performance standards. Not a few professional librarians began by working as pages in public and college libraries; and superior supervision of shelf assistants is likely to have desirable indirect results in recruitment for the profession as well as in improving work production directly. This is in keeping with the fifth principle of modern public library circulation routines, that the large volume of necessary work which cannot be mechanized or further simplified should be handled as efficiently, as economically and with as much imaginative supervision as possible. A library, for example, where books used by readers are not returned to the shelves in twenty-four hours is a poorly run library.

FOOTNOTES AND SPECIAL MATERIAL

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2. Samuel Rothstein. "The Development of the Concept of Reference Service in American Libraries, 1850-1900." *Library Quarterly*. 23: 1-15. Jan. 1953.

3. Harold S. Hacker. "New York State's Pioneer Library: A Federated Library System in Action." *Wilson Library Bulletin*. 34: 345-350. Jan. 1960. Also William J. Van Beynum. "Swap Group." *Wilson Library Bulletin*. 32: 646-648. May 1958.

4. Alan Kusler. "Rental Collection: Pro and Con." *Library Journal*. 84: 1753-1757. June 1, 1959. Also discussion and footnote 23 in Chapter 27.

5. Joseph L. Wheeler and Alfred M. Githens. *The American Public Library Building*. 1941. p. 93-99.

6. Miriam D. Tompkins and Hazel I. Medway. *Helping the Reader Toward Self-Education*. 111 p. 1938. A. L. A. Also Jennie M. Flexner and Byron C. Hopkins. *Readers' Advisers at Work*. 77 p. 1941. American Association for Adult Education. Also Evalene P. Jackson. *Reading Guidance*. Adult Services Division, *Guide to the Literature*, no. 8; preliminary draft. 4 p. 1960. mimeo. A. L. A.

7. In a study of how high school students (in two samples of 100 each) chose the books they borrowed from a public library, over half said they did so by browsing; only about 20% on the advice of a library staff member. But all of the latter read some or all of the books so chosen and almost all reported that the books did for them what they had wanted, while over 10% of the others had not read any part of the books they borrowed, and another 10% felt dissatisfied with the choices they had made. See Herbert Goldhor. "Who Reads What?" *Library Journal*. 85: 1077. Mar. 15, 1960. Also Evansville (Ind.) Public Library. *Staff News Bulletin*. Oct. 1, 1960. p. 143-44.

8. Ralph R. Shaw. "The Influence of Sloping Shelves on Book Circulation." *Library Quarterly*. 8: 480-490. Oct. 1938.

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10. For example, Hester R. Hoffman, ed. *The Reader's Advisor and Bookman's Manual*. 9th ed. 1112 p. 1960. Bowker.
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12. Bernard Berelson. *The Library's Public*. 174 p. 1949. Columbia University Press.
13. See Table 1-2 in Chapter 1, the Index of American Public Library Circulation, and continuing reports in various current issues of A. L. A. *Bulletin*.
14. C. Walter Stone, ed. "Current Trends in Adult Education," *Library Trends*, v. 8, no. 1. p. 1-122. July 1959. Also Emerson Greenaway, "The Librarian and Adult Education," *Library Quarterly*, 31: 25-32, Jan. 1961. Also Helen L. Smith, *Adult Education Activities in Public Libraries: A Report of the A. L. A. Survey of Adult Education Activities in Public Libraries and State Library Extension Agencies of the United States*. 96 p. 1954. A. L. A. Data on 1,700 libraries. Also Eleanor Phinney, *Library Adult Education in Action*. 192 p. 1956. A. L. A. Covers only 5 libraries (all of under 100,000 population) but with detailed analysis; reflects A. L. A.'s tendency to equate adult education with group and AV service.
15. Research shows that discussion group participants are usually already reading more than most people, that they tend to read more and more serious things only after continued exposure (two years or more) to discussion groups, and that a lecture course results in as much increase in reading as do discussion groups. See Abbott Kaplan, "Study-Discussion in the Liberal Arts," p. 16, 56-57. Richard J. Hill, "A Comparative Study of Lecture and Discussion Methods," p. 77-79. James A. Davis, "A Study of Participants in the Great Books Program," p. 91-93. All *Studies in Adult Group Learning in the Liberal Arts*. 1960. The Fund for Adult Education. Note that The American Foundation for Continuing Education (19 South LaSalle St., Chicago 3) is actively promoting "study-discussion" programs.
16. Edmund de S. Brunner, et. al. *An Overview of Adult Education Research*. 273 p. 1959. Adult Education Association of the U.S. p. 96-98. Also Harry L. Miller, *Evaluating Liberal Adult Education*. 182 p. 1962. Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults. Chicago, \$2. paper.
17. Patrick R. Penland, "The Image of Public Library Adult Education As Reflected in the Opinions of Public Library Supervisory Staff Members in the Public Libraries of Michigan Serving Populations Over 25,000," 251 p. 1960. University of Michigan unpublished Ph.D. thesis. Summarized in *Dissertation Abstracts*. Feb. 1961. p. 2305. Also in his articles: "Are Your Attitudes Showing," *Library Journal*, 86: 194-198, Jan. 15, 1961. "Librarians' Image of Adult Education," *Adult Education*, 11: 239-247. The Adult Services Division of A. L. A. is active in promotion and in serving present problems and has a large membership.
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CHAPTER 18

Administration of Reference Services

This chapter is not a condensed manual of reference work. It considers the administrative aspects of planning and organizing reference service to make it more effective.

THE REFERENCE FUNCTION

Users of public library service represent all levels and diversities in the social, cultural, political and economic structure, from the inquisitive child and high school pupil, the undergraduate or graduate student, to the professor, scientist, businessman, professional research worker, the housewife and homemaker, civic leader, reformer, hobby rider, do-it-yourself amateur craftsman, the blue collar worker, the man or woman with an important idea or constructive objective, the engineer and inventor, artist and musician. They all seek information. The reference function is the help which libraries give readers in finding the information they need.¹⁻⁷

Current Status of Reference Service

There is a noticeable nationwide growth of interest in specialized information, an accelerated demand for facts in an age of facts, not only in science and industry but in all fields. The importance of such informational service seems to be universally accepted. Encyclopedia sales more than trebled from 1952 to 1960. But this is by no means reflected in current planning of the action programs of most local libraries.

The majority of citizens, including many already using the library, and even trustees, civic and cultural leaders, have little idea of the number, variety and consequence of the informational questions answered for the public by some public libraries.⁸ Many librarians feel that little has been done, the ground hardly scratched, to build up this vital service. It may be

asserted that in only one or two hundred cities has the library become the busy and effective community information center which the average intelligent citizen thinks of and calls upon in time of need. Detroit and a few other cities are bright spots. In 1959-1960 the Detroit central library building was answering 798,000 informational questions; all the Detroit library agencies handled 2,115,657; far more than the A. L. A.'s "standard" of 1/2 to 1 question per capita.⁹ The dollar value of the time lost by leading citizens and the desperate maneuvers they go through to locate needed information, which is or should be available in their local libraries, seem unbelievable. The view still persists among the uninformed that the public library is essentially, as it is predominantly, a circulating library.

There was the big city defense plant in World War II, for example, which employed eight hundred engineers on original research on a multitude of subjects. To the surprise of company officials, a management expert who wondered about this expense demonstrated that in half the cases he could have found the same or better information at the library.¹⁰ Henry L. Mencken once said he was "constantly astonished . . . that few college graduates seem to have had any training in the use of reference books. . . . They do not know how to look up the most elementary information. . . . Many of them afflict my declining years . . . with questions that any bright boy of twelve should be able to answer for himself."¹¹

How important do trustees and the librarian feel this service is? They assert its importance; but while every reference desk is rushed with work, they fail to appoint enough trained reference personnel. Consequently, informational services so vital to a community languish in an embryonic state. In support of this last statement are the findings of A. L. A.'s 1955-1961 survey of public library reference service reporting conditions from 1,167 libraries as a sampling, including 479 "small" libraries of 10,000 to 25,000 population, 504 "medium size libraries" of 25,000 to 100,000 population and 184 large libraries serving 100,000 population or more. Few of these libraries were of under 15,000 population, calling for a theoretical 7 1/2 full-time staff. Yet half of all 1,167 libraries did not have even "one full-time person assigned to reference. . . . There is some indication that traditional reference service is being dispersed into newer library units. . . . Many libraries must suffer from lack of attention to the supervision and operation of their reference activities." "It is still probably a conservative estimate to say that at least half of the American public is at present without adequate reference service."¹² It is more likely that three-fourths of the population know nothing of good reference service. The 6,000 "little" libraries (under 10,000 population) were not even considered in this study, though millions of Americans go to them in the hope of getting reference information, and do get it in many cases but to an inadequate degree. If the library profession looks for a top-priority situation for which to find an effective remedy, many librarians will feel that the current neglect of

reference service and of the materials and personnel to perform it cries for attention.

As yet hardly any reference service is initiated by the library. But there is plentiful evidence that we are entering a new reference era, compelled by the public's enlarged demand for information in a more competitive and specialized age, and that the library will have to undertake more dynamic programs to publicize and promote the adult reference habit. A few libraries, like Rochester, are doing so, but they are rarities. As Shores notes "on the research front reference-librarians subject equipped are assuming full partnership in investigation and frequently now making the decisive discovery . . . reference method is likely . . . to succumb to automation. . . . But these technologies will have limitations. Inevitably reliance on the human mind and soul will return."¹³ It appears more than unrealistic to talk of automation (except in the few very large libraries) as any practical remedy, when the simple elementary factors for good reference service—trained minds, materials and reference tools—which should now be available in a public library of any size are flagrantly neglected. It is no wonder that so few citizens think of asking their library to help with their daily problems.

Definitions

For the 1960's any definition of reference work and reference questions is greatly influenced by changes in library objectives during the last few years, as we shall presently note. Barton's 1960 definition reads: "Reference service may be defined as the librarian's aid in bringing together the inquirer and the printed materials he needs for whatever purpose—the informational, educational, recreational—in other words, the librarian's skilled guidance in choosing or tracking down the best book or books for a specific piece of information or for a specific purpose."¹⁴ (To the foregoing should be added the nonprint materials which are increasingly important.) She comments on this: "This excludes directional work—such as *Where is the Readers' Guide?*—but includes all inquiries where the librarian actually assists the reader by recommending the best sources for certain types of material, or the best titles, by guiding and aiding him in the use of reference books, by finding a specific fact for him, and by gathering suitable material on a certain topic or for a certain purpose. In other words headwork, not footwork. The attempt to separate advisory and selective service from informational leads to endless difficulties. . . . We long ago gave up the attempt to separate the two in our statistics sheet, using the following instructions: 'Record below *each* request which requires professional aid of the assistant (i.e. use of his book knowledge and of knowledge of other sources of information in aiding the reader).'"¹⁴

Barton defines a reference book more closely than the foregoing: "A

reference book, as generally understood, is a book to be consulted for some definite information rather than for consecutive reading. In such books, the facts are usually brought together from a vast number of sources and arranged for convenient and rapid use. Reference tools serve the inquirer in two ways. They may supply the information directly, as in encyclopedias, dictionaries, directories, almanacs, and similar works, or they may point the way to the place where the information is found, the function of the many ingenious bibliographies and indexes now available."¹⁵

Hutchins' 1944 definition reads: "Reference work includes the direct personal aid within a library to persons in search of information for whatever purpose, and also various library activities especially aimed at making information as easily available as possible." She defines a reference question as "a request . . . for information of a definite nature which [the inquirer] expects to find in printed materials and their like, or for a certain work or works not readily located in the library."¹⁶

Long ago it was recognized that a reference question and the services entailed cannot be limited to materials used only within the building, nor those considered strictly "Reference" and so marked. Several large libraries maintain files of duplicate unbound issues of periodicals and lend these for reference use outside the building, as well as volumes from duplicate sets of encyclopedias.

Recent Developments Influence the Reference Concept

In the last few years, partly prompted by municipal officers intent on performance figures, some libraries have kept elaborate statistics of their operations, and committees have been asked to define categories of reference help to readers. No satisfactory definitions have evolved because there is too much overlapping, i.e., many questions do not fall exactly in any one category:

1. Fact-finding questions range from the very quick to the long searches for an obscure fact and include requests from all manner of persons for all kinds of purposes.

2. Material-finding questions. These may be equally important, as when the librarian aids in discovering materials which will contain the less obvious information. These too range from the quick to the time-consuming, and presented by the school pupil or the news reporter or engineer.

3. The guidance of the inquirer by showing him how to use "tools," in his search, from the *Readers' Guide* to bibliographies and other sources and avenues of approach, so that he can solve his own problems and find his own materials.¹⁷

It is questionable whether any set of definitions can encompass all that should be involved in department objectives: planning, materials, services, statistics and building plans. An experienced reference head well defines

the current opinion: "A reference department is less a separate collection in a separate room, than a specially trained staff utilizing the entire library collection."¹⁸ This had been clear as early as 1941, when its implications were discussed in a building book with the definite purpose of preventing any more of the badly frustrating buildings wherein closely related service functions are widely separated.¹⁹ Unfortunately, some of these principles are still being ignored, and they have a dominating influence on reference service.

At present many librarians attempt to lump reference work with other "adult services," a well-sounding phrase which tends to confuse and fails to develop its component parts, most important of which is the reference aspect. The idea that each member of an adult services staff can be an effective reference searcher²⁰ will not produce the substantial reference service which the nation needs today. To satisfy reader needs adequately there must be: (a) a specially selected staff who wish to serve in the information-finding capacity; and (b) an extensive training of these chosen persons both as to knowledge of materials and of tools, along with substantial experience and skill in their use. Having everyone attempt to know and serve all subjects in all capacities, whether for a community of 25,000 or of 250,000, cannot give reader satisfaction such as can be given where some of the trained staff are made responsible for concentrating on this specialized intensive service.

In summary, the reference function includes in addition to information searching (a) the bibliographic aspect, i.e., the use of and in large libraries the preparation of indexes and bibliographies, including selected lists; (b) the teaching aspect, i.e., instruction given by the librarians to persons of all ages, in the use of books and libraries as discussed in Chapter 30; (c) the promotional aspect; and (d) the internal development and improvement aspect. Some of these departmental functions are well described by Shores.²¹

ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT

In the preceding chapters on organization, and on department heads, three major aspects of a public service department were noted: materials, staff and reader services. To what point need these elements grow in order to justify a separate department for reference service? The sequence would be for the reference service to be performed (1) along with other services, at the general reader service desk in the small library; (2) at one section of the general service desk, designated by an "Information" sign and with reference tools close by; (3) at a reference desk with someone especially assigned to be responsible for this important service; and (4) in a reference department with its own area and facilities to give the most complete serv-

ice possible. The number of reference workers would increase appropriately in these stages of development.

In the Small Library

Without a special department or desk, the small village library is obligated to give reference service, occasionally drawing on the nearest regional, state or other large library for help. The library in cities with less than 15,000 population (about 7½ employees) can render considerable reference service if its staff is alert enough to encourage it.²² Post a sign, "Information" or "Reference Questions," over the most convenient portion of the general service desk. Make the person best qualified by education and reading interest responsible for handling reference questions, calling on others with interests in special subjects. Have the staff get acquainted with a score of the most essential quick reference tools. Subscribe to *Abridged Readers' Guide* at least, and to a score of the periodicals indexed therein. Keep the unbound files for five or six years. The public can be encouraged to ask questions. The staff should know the services and collections at state, regional and nearby libraries, and how to request help promptly, through the routines of interlibrary loans.

The Special Reference Center

Libraries with populations of 15,000 to 25,000 and upward (with staffs of 8 to 12) should maintain a reference service center. Services develop faster and more soundly at an efficient reference service center, with needed facilities closer at hand, than when nothing special is done. Almost always the reference center has less space than the reference librarian wishes, and priorities of location need study. The following should be included:

1. The reference desk for a trained person, even if only scheduled for half time. In a town of 15,000 or more one person should give full time to reference work. In a staff of ten, for 20,000 population, the library can justify one full-time and one half-time worker to cover a sixty-hour schedule. The desk should be six or seven feet long, if there is no reference workroom close by.

2. Two or three hundred ready reference books shelved near the desk, including the most-used dictionaries, almanacs, encyclopedias, yearbooks, indexes, such as *Readers' Guide* and the cumulated *National Geographic Magazine* index, three or four most-used phone books and city directories, the latest world atlas and a current U. S. road atlas.

3. A reference workroom. Smaller libraries are fortunate to have even one well-located workroom for circulation, reference, cataloging and preparation activities. New buildings for cities as small as 25,000 should provide a separate reference work space.

4. The public catalog, located most conveniently for staff and users, includ-

ing borrowers of circulating books. The reference desk and its users should be as near the catalog as possible. Both the reference and the circulation desks should be near the main entrance to the adult reading area.

5. A consulting stand or table for periodical indexes and encyclopedias used jointly by readers and staff. The larger the library the more these tools are used, and the stand should be close at hand. A double-faced stand, with consulting surface and shelves underneath, takes less floor space than a table, which permits no shelving. Most use of printed indexes is for a few moments only, and the encyclopedias can be taken to a reading table; chairs at the index station obstruct traffic, and tempt students to do their work here, thus interfering with other users.

6. Files of recent unbound magazines. Recent issues of *Time*, *Life* and other news magazines essential for questions on current events and persons in the news should be close by—perhaps a year's file for the twenty most-used titles, with a five-year file shelved not more than forty or fifty feet away. Smaller libraries seldom bind their magazines, but keep them in neat piles on bottom or top shelves. Many libraries ask readers to contribute personal copies as extras for circulation and replacement.

7. Pamphlet files. Even the village library needs free and inexpensive pamphlet material, and a four-drawer filing case to hold it. Pamphlets are often more useful and up to date than expensive books and are especially helpful on school reference questions.

Each of the foregoing items competes for space nearest the service desk. Time is lost on every trip to get material, to reach the workroom and to assist waiting readers. Architects and librarians handicap good reference service if they disregard this factor in planning reference space and its close location to the main entrance, the card catalog and the circulating adult nonfiction collection.²⁴

The Larger Reference Area or Room

For cities of more than 30,000 population, a separate area or room should be assigned for reference service, though increasingly the general adult reading space is left in a large undivided whole, with one service center for circulation and another close by for reference. This permits readers to be as close as possible to both circulating and reference books. The facilities outlined in the preceding paragraphs will all be essential here.

The typical reference room, closed in by walls, or in an area set off by glass or bookcase screens, can be efficient within itself if its entrance is visible from and convenient to the main adult entrance, and the card catalog is close by. It needs a one- or two-station public service desk with an adequate workroom and the most-used materials within eight or ten feet of the desk, supplemented by 2,000 or 3,000 additional reference books and periodicals on double-faced bookcases fairly near the desk. The department staff should study and determine the most convenient locations for indi-

vidual reference works. One library serving 150,000 population has "R" books shelved in five different locations or zones, according to frequency of use. Such an arrangement calls for a diagram or explanatory statement. In some recent buildings both the reference room and adult circulation department are well placed in the same large general area, separated by bookcases and perhaps with a Plexiglass screen above them to reduce the noise.

For libraries in cities of 200,000 or more an enclosed reference room may be desirable, but increasingly the equivalent space is set off only by bookcases. The main floor plans proposed in 1961 for the new Queens Borough building cover nearly an acre and a half, and the departments are marked only by furniture and aisles; everything is open and flexible. The whole idea, atmosphere and operation of such a series of large service spaces is in direct contrast with the great reading reference halls such as that at the top of the Forty-second Street New York Public Library building, or Bates Hall at Boston, or those at Michigan, Illinois and Northwestern universities; the latter type, in vogue a half century ago, will probably not be planned in any future building.²⁴ The increasing problem of separating quiet from unquiet users can be met by setting up bookcases as divider screens, or by providing a small, quiet, glass-enclosed reading and study room, as at New Canaan, Conn., and Rome, N. Y., equipped with comfortable chairs and individual desks for adults who would concentrate. Somewhere close by there should be a small conference room for students or others who need to talk while they work, such as debaters.

Cities of 25,000-30,000 population should have two trained reference librarians to cover a ten- or twelve-hour daily schedule of service and supervision. In any case much time can be saved by keeping the live adult book collection in one large unbroken area while providing an efficient reference center at the most strategic point.

DEPARTMENTAL RELATIONSHIPS

Reference-Circulation Relationships

The natural joint use of the adult nonfiction circulation books for both reference and circulation makes it essential to place both service desks near the main entrance to the adult reading room, so that both staff and readers can use the collection. This does not mean interfiling reference books with circulating books, though it will often be profitable to shelve reference copies of many books with circulating copies so that readers will find a copy in. The answer depends partly on the distance the reference staff must go to get the book, and partly on the value of the book as a reference source. Assuming a sizable collection of the most-used reference tools close to the reference desk, the same reasons call for having at least the live por-

tion of the adult nonfiction as close as possible to the reference desk.

This is true both for a general collection in the smaller library and for subject departments in large libraries. Most library buildings were planned before the public became nearly as fact- and information-minded as it is today, and before librarians themselves came to realize that circulating books of nonfiction are often the best source for answering reference questions. For this reason, as many libraries increase in size, they buy non-circulating duplicates of numerous titles originally designed for home reading, in order to have a copy always on hand. Libraries with limited budgets must take a chance that the circulating copy will be in when needed for reference.

There is a difference between two viewpoints which are often confused. The first is that "adult services" can be used to combine circulation and reference services as well as materials in one large unit. The inevitable outcome is the discouragement of special attention to the reference function by refusing it the personnel and facilities needed. This problem has been discussed earlier in this chapter and in the preceding chapter. The second concept is that reference service is important enough to have a separate and specially prepared staff, adequate in number and with a service desk, work-room and concentrated attention to enable it to meet its demands. This does not involve a separate room or a divided or duplicated collection. It does mean an adequate service center and staff. This interpretation is especially significant in libraries for cities of 20,000 to nearly 100,000 population, at which point the question of subject departments will arise, as a further step to strengthen the reference function. The A.L.A. Reference Survey of 1955, published in 1961, found that of 1,167 sample public libraries over the U.S., only 75 per cent of the 184 serving over 100,000 population had a separate "department," only 50 per cent of the 504 serving 25,000-100,000 population had one, while only a third of the 479 serving 10,000-25,000 population had one.²⁰ Unfortunately, even with the 1961 report of this survey, which involved so much devoted work, we have no good statistics which clearly show the detailed reference situation in most libraries, i.e., organization, staffing, proportion of budget, etc. Nationally, effective organization of reference services is far from general, though funds could often be shifted from less essential functions, such as audio-visual and group activities, to provide adequate reference personnel. One recommendation is inescapable: a library with twelve employees should have an organized reference department and service with at least 1½ trained librarians devoted to the reference function.

With the Catalog Department

Because of insufficient trained staff and the peaks of reader demand (usually 3 to 5:30 P.M. daily and all day Saturday), it is common practice

in small libraries to assign one or two qualified persons as catalogers in the mornings and as reference librarians in the afternoons, a strenuous double life. There is much to be said, even in large libraries such as Milwaukee, for this interchange of professional workers. It provides greater understanding, new ideas and broader viewpoints that benefit the library, and many catalogers enjoy helping readers. But the investment in special skills for these two types of work, even though they have much in common, may not always make it profitable to carry this interchange as far as has been advocated by Lundy.²⁶

RELATIONS WITH NEIGHBORING LIBRARIES

It is essential to understand specifically the procedures and materials of college, special and other libraries in the vicinity, for the reader's benefit. Private citizens, also, are often willing to lend their books to public library patrons when demands run beyond the library's resources. Some libraries, such as that at Racine, use teletype and quick delivery service to and from still larger libraries in the vicinity as a substantial source of needed material. In 1960 Racine requested 1,111 items by teletype and received 607, at teletype rental and messenger costs of \$916, or \$1.50 per item received, including many subject magazines. "Without the opportunity . . . we could not begin to offer the reader service that we do."²⁷

Regional Reference Service

The inadequacy of reference materials and service in many libraries deserves serious consideration in planning and organizing both local reference programs and the large county or regional library systems discussed in Chapter 26. Even if local reference service is good, help should come from a stronger, larger centralized system; this is especially effective in an industrialized metropolitan area. These services would include subject specialization, union catalogs and bibliographies, more, better and faster interlibrary loans, film and photo-print service.²⁸ In fact, next to cooperative cataloging, the regional reference center is the chief motivation for many current regional systems. At present the state library agencies act as area service centers. Compared with the immense populations that could be served, such state reference service is still in an undeveloped stage, as recognized by efforts in Ohio, New York, California, Wisconsin to create or utilize large natural regional centers to develop reference functions. The buying of materials is only the beginning of what should be quick, intensive overnight service. If the state or regional system is organized efficiently the local library should initiate the steps necessary to become an effective participant in such central service, and points of protocol should be ignored,

for it would mean a steady stream of reference help, including film and photo-copying.

REFERENCE STAFFING

The professional reference workers need well-rounded education and training, supported by a rich cultural background of reading, especially in history, biography, science, social science and national and world affairs. Intellectual curiosity, keen interest in what is going on in the world and in the community, and the instincts of a detective increase the zest for reference work. Many reference librarians have vision and imagination to fit the ideas and facts they encounter, the titles of books, the statistical and news items into the department's flow of inquiries and help to readers. Fresh items and ideas of this sort make good memory topics to report at department meetings.

The department head should have adequate help in this vital field. In the light of situations observed in several efficient libraries, we venture to suggest the following minimum staff as well justified, even though there are no statistical studies available to document the case; for example, the A. L. A. 1961 Reference Survey report gives no staffing quotas. For small-town libraries with less than five on the staff, one-eighth of the total staff time should be devoted to adult reference service. That is, in a staff of four, one trained worker should give at least half time; out of a staff of five to nine, one trained full-time reference worker plus enough time from another to cover a sixty-hour week. For staffs of ten to eighty, one-eighth of the total staff time should be assigned to reference. For staffs of eighty or more, one-seventh of the staff should be assigned to adult reference duty in general reference, subject departments and branches. This includes professional and clerical workers, but not those involved in the ordering, preparation or checking-in of periodicals and documents, or other activities belonging elsewhere; however, some libraries have a clerical worker check these in in the reference department. Observation of reference librarians on public duty in most libraries indicates that no matter how able the workers are they will still be overburdened if there is no more help available than the quotas just given, which are considered by several as too conservative even for a forty-hour week. Reference staffs are noted for the amount of their unpaid overtime work.

The A. L. A. Standards call for a 30-70 ratio of professionals to nonprofessionals for the staff as a whole.²⁸ Many librarians consider this inadequate as to professionals. This general proportion for the whole library is invalid when applied in the informational services, where at least 70 to 75 per cent should be professionals. Some reference leaders say 80 to 90 per cent. Reference service is a specialized type of work and to develop

adequate skills it needs special attention by those most competent. It calls for a higher proportion of educated trained persons than any other part of library work, partly because so little can be done by clerical assistants, assuming that every possible clerical operation is assigned to them. In libraries large enough to have a clerical worker seated and busy next to the trained reference worker at the service desk, the former may be asked to bring specific books or take readers to specific shelves or materials; she should not attempt to answer readers' questions. The idea that inquiries should be presented to inexperienced persons and fed upward to those qualified to help is a disservice and inconvenience to readers, partly because the inexperienced have no idea where the question *should* lead, as to materials needed. This participation by untrained workers is hazardous; there are always some clerical or untrained but educated workers keenly interested in what is going on; if assigned to this department they can make themselves very valuable and after a year or so can take over more of the fairly simple questions.

DIRECTING THE REFERENCE STAFF

We have noted above the goal of a good reference librarian—to get all the intelligent citizens into the habit of calling on the library for informational help and to answer their questions. Including a large proportion of high school and college students, those already using reference service probably constitute less than a tenth of the possible clientele.

Departmental Objectives and Planning

The department head's activities should therefore include (1) planning and leading; (2) supervising and training the staff; (3) reaching and serving as many readers as possible; (4) dividing and assigning the department's routine duties; (5) dividing the selection and checking of materials among those best qualified; (6) compiling indexes and bibliographies and cooperating in union catalogs; (7) preparing statistics and department reports (as few, brief and specific as possible); (8) preparing personnel reports and budget requests; and (9) promotion for the services. All these need to be programmed and assigned, with everyone informed as to what goes on.¹⁰ It is true, but it should not be, that many reference staffs are burdened with extraneous clerical work which does not belong in the department.

Training

A reference staff can hardly maintain a high level of self-development without study, stimulated by group discussion. We found no effective re-

cruiting pamphlet for public library reference work to give each reference worker a fresh overall reminder of his objectives.³¹ Reference in-training should aim at improving reference service techniques, and developing fuller knowledge of new and older materials as well as broader knowledge of subjects which predominate in reference requests.

Topics for discussion meetings of the reference staff or by groups of two or three include local periodical holdings, the recording of statistics, how to instruct new workers on special activities, how to prepare publicity items, how much time to spend on a reference question, when to find the answer and when to show the reader how to find it, how much help to give writers and teachers who ask for it, what resources exist in other departments, exchange of assistants with other libraries and coaching understudies.³²

In libraries of any size and in library school, assistants should have practice sessions and demonstration on how to draw out sufficient expression of the reader's inquiry so it can be understood, how to utilize the special knowledge of each assistant and how to evaluate the importance of and therefore the time given to individual questions, so as best to use staff time. The Hutchins and Wyer chapters and the Downs, Barnett and Reed articles, noted below under "The Reader's Questions," give a good start for training sessions. Many of the foregoing ideas are usable for staffs of only three or four.

BUILDING THE COLLECTIONS

Use of the terms "collections" and "materials" signifies the awareness of librarians that books meet only a part of reference needs, though books form the backbone. Checking Winchell's *Guide to Reference Books* and its supplements, Shores' *Basic Reference Sources*, and new reference titles annotated in *Library Journal*, in *Wilson Library Bulletin*, in *Subscription Books Bulletin* and in other sources will indicate what reference items are available. For both large and smaller libraries the latest edition of Barton's annotated list of 595 selected reference works is a practical guide.³³ Bibliographies are expensive and often neglected in all except large public libraries. A union list of bibliographies possessed by local or nearby libraries may be a large undertaking, but libraries of over 50,000 population with an alert staff will use it. To supplement the card catalog of a library's own holdings, a library of 40,000 population and upward should have at least the *Subject Index to Books in Print* and the *Cumulative Book Index* for identifying titles which may be borrowed by interloan, if they cannot be bought. The extent and efficiency of interlibrary lending and borrowing is a good criterion of the department's usefulness to its community.

Vertical File Material

A 1956 sampling at Evansville P.L.'s reference department showed 386 questions looked up and 448 sources used to answer 375 (97 per cent) of them. Of these sources, 42 per cent were reference books, 25 per cent circulating books, 10 per cent the pamphlet files, 8 per cent periodicals, 7 per cent indexes, 6 per cent telephone directories and 2 per cent government publications.²⁴ These figures indicate the importance of up-to-date, concise pamphlet and other vertical file material. The preparation and publishing of a regular trade book requires a year or more, usually, whereas public interest in current events gives rise to valuable and often objective and authoritative bulletins and reports more promptly prepared. Thousands of brochures, whose advertising nature detracts little from their value, cover commodities, production methods and other subjects frequently in demand. In the 1933 Baltimore central library building, 69 four-drawer filing cases were provided in its ten adult departments. By 1949, 45 more cases had been added, and this total (119 cases, 476 drawers) was insufficient, for despite drastic weeding 50 more cases were requested by the 10 departments. General Reference was using an estimated average of 30 items a day, Civics and Sociology 45, Industry and Science 60, the others fewer. In Local History, and Art, because of the nature of the material, discarding was minimal though systematic, but in the others it was annual and drastic. The brief summary of types of questions answered from "VF's" in the ten departments is a revelation of the diversity of interests served.²⁵

Documents

Public documents, selected and ordered by libraries which are not Federal depositories, are often included in the vertical files. Thicker and bound documents are treated as books. Decisions have to be studied out as to what special series of state and Federal documents are important enough to retain in series files. Nondepository libraries may discover and order promptly the most useful items by scanning the Superintendent of Documents' *Monthly Catalog of U.S. Government Publications*, (or the bi-weekly *Selected U.S. Government Publications* list for small libraries) and the items listed in A. L. A. *Booklist*. They should subscribe for the Federal serials indexed in the Wilson Company indexes. Also useful is the *Monthly List of State Publications* issued by the Library of Congress. In larger libraries, the penalties for maintaining separate document and periodical rooms and collections have been pointed out by Barton.²⁶

Further discussion of periodicals, vertical file material, documents, pictures, maps, charts and other materials is found in Chapter 27. But each member of the reference staff should know and regularly use these valuable materials. In many libraries documents are almost completely ignored,

primarily because of mere lack of time to keep up with their publication and to prepare and publicize them.

Microfilm

Libraries of 100,000 population and over should have a microfilm copy of the *New York Times* and of any local paper whose publisher can be induced to undertake a film edition. These will be used by the public on a reading machine, and many reference questions can be answered thereby. But the *New York Times Index* should be purchased first; it is the key to the dates not only for items in the *Times* but for possible items in other newspapers. Other forms of micro-materials, i.e., micro-card and micro-print, are rapidly developing so that they are now practical in the large libraries.³⁶

Special Indexes

Locally prepared reference indexes augment the value of a library's holdings. The extent of this indexing is a moot question to many librarians. Some suggest that the effort to compile and update them is too great and their use too small to justify the time cost. Other reference librarians with zeal for "facts on file" think these special indexes indispensable for reader satisfaction, such as indexes of parties and games, legislative bills of the current session, local organizations of all kinds, saints treated in collective biographies, consumer product ratings, popular song hits, popular piano and choral music, movies and their sources under various titles, articles in *This Week* and other magazines not covered by Wilson indexes, and detective stories. This partial list of time-consuming projects suggests (a) the need for careful investigation to avoid duplicating what has already been done, perhaps locally; (b) the possibility of having volunteers, such as the A. L. A.'s Junior Members' Round Table, produce many of these highly useful indexes;³⁷ and (c) the desirability of having some indexes duplicated or published for national use. Many, like Lovell and Hall's widely useful *Index to Handicrafts*, are started in volunteered time.

One will not overlook "local human resources" for special information, i.e., persons well informed on stamps, science, products, foreign countries, local and national history; generally they are glad to help.

SERVICE TO READERS

If the library is really to be the community's information center, the staff must make a ceaseless effort to study, apply and improve its techniques. They must understand the objectives and activities of as many groups of

citizens as possible. Each assistant should try fully to understand the request of each individual who comes for information, and be sure that all the library's resources are tapped for the most useful information. A follow-up slip for every unanswered question, with reader's phone number, should be kept and studied to determine the reason for the failure to find the answer. Some libraries telephone inquirers on seemingly important topics, to report material subsequently received or discovered. In many libraries an index file is kept, mostly by subjects, of material which is difficult to find and may be asked for again, especially otherwise unindexed items like statistics in newspapers and other obscure sources. The services of an information center require a constant stream of interlibrary loans, and in large libraries the preparation of special subject bibliographies. Discussion of "documentation" and "information retrieval," i.e., mechanized indexing, coding, storage and decoding of information, is hardly profitable in the present volume. An effort will be made at A. L. A.'s "Library Century 21" at the Seattle 1962 Exposition, to bring "remote inquiry" to reality. Even the very large public libraries, which will increasingly benefit from these methods, have so far found the problems and cost prohibitive compared with the number of questions that can be answered.³⁸

The Reader's Questions

"The reference librarian is the middleman between the reader and the right book," for "it has been estimated that fully 95 per cent of a library's users do not know exactly what they want or where it can be found when they enter a library." This applies to many researchers and college professors. It is often impossible to find out just what the reader wishes; an hour a week of staff discussion on techniques of probing the reader's mind is likely to improve service. This may well start with such material on helping individual readers as Chapters 3 and 4, pp. 21-40 of Hutchins,¹ and Chapters 6 and 7, pp. 95-128 of Wyer,² and the articles by Downs,³⁹ Barnett⁴⁰ and Reed.⁴⁰ This material needs to be updated, multiplied by ten, and published with continued supplements in a more substantial periodical on reference service than we now have.

It is of administrative importance that the reference staff learn to conserve time by learning good questioning techniques—how to discover in detail just what the particular piece of information is that the reader needs and why, thus eliminating much useless searching for material not helpful. This questioning has to be patient, friendly, unassuming and not too persistent. By explaining why one is trying to delimit the search to fit the particular case, the staff member will find that the reader is often willing to explain his need much further. Barnett's discussion of these library-inquirer relations deserves reading by every public library reference worker.³⁹

Knowing the Materials

Librarians with substantial training and experience in book use are successful in finding what is wanted. Constant in-service instruction and exchange of experience among assistants help to avoid situations where assistants tell their readers that they can't find the answer, when often it is not twenty feet away. This suggests the imperative of asking one's colleagues for supplementary clues to the answers.

Service to School Students

The main discussion on this is in Chapter 22. But the hub of this increasing problem is the reference service asked and needed. Whatever attitudes and policies a library develops to help or to discourage these users, the reference head and staff, who should understand the consequences, should have a voice in the discussion and decisions.⁴¹

Helping College Students

Since college libraries are generally open as many hours as the local public library, some public libraries may be justified in ruling that the college students will get only limited public library reference service. This is a touchy problem in cases where the public library has a more able staff and a better book collection than the college library. But public librarians need to realize that reading assignments often require the use of every copy of a book available anywhere. The college library's funds may be meager—its staff may consist of too many inexperienced student assistants; or the college library administration may be weak. In such instances reference service ought to be given by the public library, whose trustees in turn have a right to enlist local public opinion in insisting that the college build up its library, assemble a trained reference staff and serve its own students. This is a policy matter that should not be allowed to drift. Committees composed of members of the public library staff, its trustees and the local college personnel should analyze the problem, weigh the factors of public and college reaction and make needed decisions.

Contest Questions

Many reference departments curtail reference service when high prizes in contests are offered, difficult questions are asked and high-pressure publicity impels crowds of searchers to abuse and steal valuable reference books. Complete refusal to give quiz service creates misunderstanding and bad public relations, partly because a library may not have already publi-

cized and explained its normal and perhaps excellent reference services, and the public does not realize the problems involved. Other devices used are (a) a fifteen-minute time limit for any book in demand; (b) putting all the relevant books into glassed or screened cases and giving them out only on signed receipts; (c) concentrating users in one area so that one person can oversee all contestants and prevent mutilations or thefts; and (d) working out the answers and posting them to prevent contestants using the books (risky unless the answers are certainly correct, and often not practical).

Telephone Service

The attitude that "if people can't take the trouble to come here for help, let them get along without it" is hardly realistic today. There is a widespread public habit of calling up for help. Some libraries advertise, "You are as close to the library as your phone," and answer so many questions each month that restrictions are needed to curb abuses. A number of large libraries now have special telephone reference service desks and staffs. But in some libraries no school or college student's reference questions are answered over the phone, no telephone question may involve more than fifteen minutes, no quiz or contest questions are permitted, and deferring answers is increasingly used to relieve the pressure and to give the staff more time to do adequate searching. In the natural course, telephone service is bound to increase greatly.

The Reference Attitude

This section is concluded with a summary of the often-quoted seven qualities which Mearns deems desirable for every reference librarian; (1) literacy, the ability to comprehend easily and to receive communication; (2) imagination and resourcefulness; (3) enthusiasm; (4) persistence; (5) a sense of media, which makes the good reference librarian a true "master of materials"; (6) humility, so that one doesn't consider it a personal affront if the information cannot be found in his collection (and is indefatigable in trying to locate it somewhere else); and (7) "love for serving people, or that spirit of service which we hope motivates all librarians."⁴²

PUBLICITY FOR REFERENCE SERVICE

"The average man learns from his own experience, the wise man learns from the experience of others" is an old proverb which can be used for promoting reference service. The average citizen may not have enough intellectual curiosity or gumption to find out what others have done or

written about his problem. Thus the department's planning must include finding effective ways to inform all the major population groups that the library can serve them with the information they need as individuals. A survey to learn where the adult public gets its information concludes: "It is apparent that the library suffers from being a quiet voice in an increasingly clamorous world . . . many . . . have forgotten that the library exists . . . the only suggestion from a thousand returns . . . by any appreciable number of people (other than that there be more libraries and more books) is that the library publicize its activities and services more widely. . . . Few people . . . think of the public library as a place from which they could obtain the necessary information."⁴⁸

The important subject of instruction in the use of books and libraries, which affects reference service so greatly, is discussed in Chapter 30.

The conviction that reference service has hardly scratched the consciousness of the community means that the reference department should publicize reference tools, services and questions at least as well and as persistently, for instance, as children's services are publicized. Such publicity is discussed in Chapters 9 and 30. It is mentioned here as a reminder that the department head cannot depend on some publicity officer to initiate it. The reference librarians are the ones to see that reference publicity shall be greatly multiplied. Every reference assistant needs to think about publicity day after day, making outlines for news stories and other suggestions.

MEASURING REFERENCE SERVICE

Statistics

We have noted the increasing pressures on librarians to keep statistical records of reference services, along with statistics of many other activities. In general there is a conflict between the desire for self-measurement as an administrative service to gain efficiency and economy, and the wish to avoid every possible sort of statistical record and paperwork as factor number one in economy. Individual reference librarians and committees have written scores of articles and reports on this problem and as yet no recommendations emerge that are generally satisfying.

It does seem useful that if the total number of reference questions is divided into the total of expenditure for salaries in the reference services, then we get at least a rough cost figure per unit. We do not suggest including costs of material, owing to complexities and the time costs for accounting. Most small libraries and a few large city libraries keep no reference statistics, for three fairly good reasons: their cost, the problems of defining categories and the difficulty in recording them faithfully. The

head of many a library with a high total of "reference questions answered" is concerned over the validity of the figures. The inconsistent bases, definitions and reportings possible, with the best of intentions, show up especially in comparing annual statistics from the subject departments or branches of individual large libraries. No one can explain their striking contrasts, or the zigzag curves which follow changes in agency heads, even while all concerned are honest and conscientious.

Two types of proposals have been made in the search for a practical solution. An A. L. A. committee is working on defining categories of questions, and a list of reference department duties, and may have better results than its predecessors. But, as was pointed out, the line between strictly reference questions and those involving advice in evaluating and discussing circulating books is increasingly uncertain, and Barton's suggestions quoted above under "Definitions" may be the most practical answer to the problem of what statistics to keep.

The second proposal is to record questions according to the amount of time taken to answer them. Pierce suggested keeping score of the questions that require less than 5 minutes, 5 to 14 minutes, 15 to 29, and 30 minutes or over. It may be argued that these are arbitrary periods and that they show nothing about staff efficiency or the importance of the questions. But they do give a seeming quantitative measure which appeals to some public officials.⁴⁴ A form for this is reproduced by Budington.⁴⁵ Barton shows why such a time element is misleading. In one college the typical professor loses \$5 to \$10 worth of his time to get to the college library, find the desired material and sit down to "one unit of book use." Can such a unit be defined?⁴⁶ One assistant may be skilled or lucky enough to answer what seems a difficult question from the first source she consults, in two or three minutes, whereas another, even more experienced, may consult a dozen books for fifteen minutes before she finds the answer or asks her colleagues for help. It may become necessary, but it will still be undesirable, to keep time-per-question records, because they prove nothing; even in the same library personnel changes will disrupt them. If real economy is sought it will best result from better salaries to keep the most able reference workers, who can save time waste, and give better reader service.

It has become increasingly clear that *some* objective record has to be kept, whether under pressure from budget officials to "measure the output" per theoretical dollar, or to see whether the library is approaching the A. L. A. standard of " $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 reference question per capita."⁴⁷ Several libraries are nearing the "1 question per capita," but even if their counting methods were critically examined there seems to be present justification for raising the standard to " $\frac{3}{4}$ to 1 reference and advisory question per capita."

Assuming that a count will be kept of reference, informational and advisory questions, preferably combined to avoid the complications of defini-

tions, the next difficulty is to see that they are recorded. Some staffs are too busy, indifferent or opposed to keep a complete count. Assistants are sometimes seen trying to recall the number of inquiries they have just handled in a rush and scoring down more or often fewer than they actually had. In reporting results of two samplings at twenty-eight city libraries it was remarked that "Most of these libraries report each contact between individual and patron. Louisville counts only those contacts which involve professional skill on the part of the librarian."⁴⁸ This is very close to the Barton definition quoted above, and seems a sensible one.

A day-by-day score, and in the opinion of many reference workers a list of the questions, should be kept as carefully as possible. The question list is valuable for department staff analysis and discussions to improve service. But frequent careful samplings of both figures and questions, that is, for a week every month or every two months, may well suffice for a fair annual estimate. Reference staffs feel keenly that they are too busy to keep continuous statistics, though many libraries take the matter more seriously. Enoch Pratt Library has reconsidered its statistics sheet through committees under three directors since 1945, and its daily report form is now used in a number of libraries.⁴⁹

If a library is compelled to report output, the reference department may record some of the following: attendance, directional questions, reference questions, unanswered questions, bibliographies prepared, reference volumes used, telephone questions and questions by mail.⁵⁰ Some of these almost defy definition, and to record them is so time-consuming that it seems inconsistent with the efforts which libraries are making to cut out all possible records and paperwork elsewhere.

Costs

Until most libraries keep reference statistics on a common basis, there can be no valid comparative figures of accomplishment or of reference service costs, though both are desirable to stimulate progress. A 1958 study of 100 questions at Evansville showed an average time span of 9 minutes. Divided into the assistant's pay rate, this made an average cost of 30 cents per question.⁵¹ One cannot weigh the significance or validity of such a figure without knowing, for example, what proportion of them came from school pupils. Even if some agreement is not reached by the Reference Services Division of A. L. A. on a "unit of reference service," or on a definition of reference questions (possibly breaking them into two or three categories of importance), and on a method for counting them, an arbitrary but useful average reference unit cost can be determined by simply totaling the salary cost of the reference staff, and dividing by total reference questions, to get a salary cost per question, as in the Evansville example. The idea of a theoretically more exact unit cost by counting all the fringe

and overhead costs involved may occur to those who believe that it pays to spend a dollar of salary time to discover a hidden dime of cost. Statistics and cost figures of reference service should be kept on the simplest and most economical basis possible and not so elaborated that overbusy assistants are diverted from attending to their patrons.

Evaluation of the Department

Reference service is so greatly a matter of variables and intangibles that attempts to evaluate the department and its operations are rather baffling. A practical, effective test of a reference department is a two- or three-day self-survey of what happens to each patron. "What luck?" is a good heading for a reader questionnaire to ascertain (1) whether the request grew out of school or college assignments or out of the reader's daily job, and in what manner; (2) whether the patron got what he came for; and (3) if not, why not, with several possible reasons to be checked. Such an inquiry of all patrons for two or three days every two or three years will reveal many specific inadequacies and reader frustrations which can be remedied.⁵² It seems strange that this device is not used in most libraries. Twenty years ago a New Zealand librarian wrote: "The demand which is not followed up, the request for which something less than exactly what the reader wants is supplied, the contact which is not made, the enquirer who is kept waiting until he gives up—these are the things which should keep us awake at night."⁵³ This concern is primary in the thinking and planning of the reference head, who must go further and do something about it; so must the head librarian.

GENERAL REFERENCES

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CHAPTER 19

Administration of Subject Departments or Services

The growing and continuing trend to departmentalize adult services into large subject fields reflects an increasing public need for more specialized information and the national development in research. Because the individual citizen has to formulate his more specialized ideas and plans as efficiently as possible before putting his projects under way, he requires specialized library service in which circulating and reference books, reports, documents, pamphlets, and periodicals on related subjects are brought together into coherent major subject groupings. This calls for trained librarians who can concentrate on the materials, reader needs and library techniques in their special field. This is in great contrast to the attempt to know a little about and to give less knowledgeable service on everything. As time passes reader demands will result in more such departments.

GROWTH OF THE SUBJECT DEPARTMENT IDEA

The first subject department seems to have been actually set in operation in 1900 by William E. Foster in the central building of the Providence Public Library. The executives, designers and employees in the silverware, jewelry, textile and machine tool industries in that city called for a constant flow of information about new research, art work, designs and inventions. The librarian was alert enough to supply it. On the third floor of the then new building, he created an Art Department and an Industrial Department, with a readers' service desk between them. This pairing of two departments reflected the locally predominant art-in-industry and machine tool occupations. It seems to have been the first recognition that a library's informational organization should be based on the community's character. The public libraries of Minneapolis and the District of Columbia shortly afterward created subject departments. The slightly earlier subject departments

in the Newberry Library and in the reference department of the New York Public Library, both strictly reference libraries, were entirely different in organization and operation from the type of combined circulating and reference department considered here. The later history of subject departmentation is recounted elsewhere.¹

In 1939, Warren suggested that the added expense for subject departmentation was hardly justified in cities of less than half a million people. Even then this view might well have been questioned, and factors which in some libraries had created unprofitable costs, such as placing separate rooms on several floors and at some distance apart, have been recognized and overcome. The latest *American Library Directory* shows numerous cities of under 100,000 with at least one subject department, usually Art and Music, besides a local history room.

It is significant that subject departmentation in public libraries started about the same time and developed about as rapidly as the special libraries movement, which resulted in libraries within business and industrial corporations. Subject departments serve in the public library as "special libraries" for the community at large. Many special libraries use also the resources of the public library and vice versa, though this interchange is undeveloped compared with its possibilities. In the 1960's the economic and military pressure to master the mass of current literature, including foreign, on science and technical subjects has stimulated intensive searching, translating and retrieval enterprises, which now hold the attention of many special, university and large research libraries.² Their scope and operations are beyond the purpose of this book; their methods may soon become practicable to meet public needs in libraries in cities of less than a million population.

A study by Vainstein in 1960 showed public libraries in 67 American and 5 Canadian cities operating a separate department to serve local business and industrial interests. In a few cases these were operated as branches in separate buildings because the main library was not well located.³ More than half of these 72 departments combined "business and industry," or "business, technology and science," though a few were labeled "business and economics." Departmental labels should be short; and they seldom completely describe the coverage, but in cities of 100,000 to 500,000 the combination of business, economics, trades, industry, technology and science, i.e., the 500's and 600's of the decimal classification, seems to be a favorite pattern. It evidently works well and avoids whatever extra cost results from splitting these in two, notwithstanding there are three or four distinct clienteles to be served. In larger cities the fields of business and economics are sufficiently large and distinct from science and technology, and have so large a clientele, as to warrant their separation for more specialized service. In 1954 the head of the business department at Vancouver, population 375,000, urged that it should not be combined with "science and technology" in their new 1957 building.⁴

No recent statistics have been published on subject departments (except Vainstein's), though this information might, with some effort, be assembled from the latest *American Library Directory*. A 1942 table in McDiarmid showed Art and Music first in department frequency, with 6 in the 10-24 staff group and 19 in the 25-74 staff group, Technology 4 and 7, Business 4 and 7, and Local History 6.⁵ Even if Technology and Business were combined, as is frequently done, Art and Music had by 1942 become the leading subjects for a combined department of their own, with Technology and Business a close second. In the last twenty years, because of popular interest, gifts and stimulation from local cultural groups, Art and Music has forged ahead.

In cities of a quarter million or more it is increasingly common to find complete subject departmentation. The major fields of knowledge are divided into six to ten large groups. Within each group the materials have close subject relationships, and service is given to large and fairly distinct categories of readers by reference workers either trained in or specializing in the subject area.

Obviously, readers do not confine themselves to particular subjects; their personal interests are constantly changing and often have nothing to do with their vocational, social or cultural boundaries. Consequently they may use several or all departments. The organization and arrangement of these departments present many problems. Some are discussed below, but there may never be a single pattern to meet all situations; building plans and structure greatly influence local decisions.

PROS AND CONS

Nearly all discussion to date has concluded in favor of subject departmentation, despite the fact that much of the thinking has been influenced by the tendency to visualize it as more separative, complicated and costly than need be. As the English librarian McClellan phrases it, "distinct departments become in effect separate libraries within a library. The scale of resources required . . ." would "deter any but the largest systems."⁶ But just how large need a library be? And why do departments need to seem like separate libraries? The answer is suggested above where we discussed the split-off of one or two subjects in several cities of less than 100,000 population. Probably all of these libraries would say that the cost is justified, and the results gratifying. Since 1930 nearly all the libraries built in cities of over 100,000 have at least one or two subject departments. Those opened since 1950 in cities of over 150,000 usually have three or more. Each of these libraries considers the costs well repaid, except that Rochester would not have eight if it were planning the building again; this case of overorganization was evident as such as soon as created.

Effect on Service and Morale

An advantage, easily observable in action, is that all this greater background knowledge about subjects and materials, the bibliographical techniques and numerous other resources, are focused intensively on the reader. As discussed in the previous chapter, good layout calls for placing the departmental service point, with its workroom, at the entrance of the department to assure that every reader will pass the service staff and have full opportunity to request help. This concentration of attention on the reader characterizes some general reference rooms of the older type, but it does not provide the special interest in and knowledge of the subject *materials* found in subject departments.

A higher proportion of staff time can be focused on reader service. The administrative function takes less time because most of the staff is professional and carries on a homogeneous group of duties that have to do almost entirely with readers and their materials in a restricted field. Circulation routines and records are and should be carried on elsewhere. Clerical helpers should do all that can be delegated from the specialists, just as in any general reference department. A library that builds up a staff of competent subject specialists gains the high regard of its community. The entire staff benefits. Naturally, readers benefit and, as McClellan points out, there is a continual and rapid rise in the use of such departments.⁶

Greater Costs

It is clear that larger payrolls are involved. Each department requires an added head, at least two or three trained assistants and at least one full-time clerical worker. At present rates the annual salary cost for an effective subject department staff would run to \$25,000 to \$30,000. But this is spent on a high-quality intensive reader service not attained by any other type of library organization. If this improved service were given under any other form of organization the salary cost for the additional assistants would be at least as great and probably greater.

Other Difficulties

That the average borrower does not require specialized information has an element of truth. But this is largely due to his unawareness that he could get help on his special undertaking. A 1949 study reported two problems: (1) "difficulties of classifying books which may be of interest to several departments," and (2) "handling of questions which cut across several departments."⁷ These difficulties were greatest in libraries, such as Cleveland and Los Angeles, where the departments were separated around the outside of a building and on two or three floors, causing excessive loss

of reader and staff time. This is partly a matter of building plans. But the spread and complexity of reader demands involve difficult problems in all library situations, including those resulting from "reader interest grouping," for example, many librarians share the feeling of "alarm at apparent attempts to ignore the classification system."⁸

Other shortcomings, the validity of which is dependent on local organization and building plans, are:

1. Tendency of a department staff to confine its interest and knowledge so narrowly to its own subject field that it knows too little of the others, assumes a self-sufficient attitude and fails to use related materials in other departments. This short-sightedness, possible under any form of organization, can be largely overcome by proper coordination, constant alertness, reminders and carefully prepared schedules of subject analysis and breakdown.

2. Tendency to shunt readers from one department to another, a fault in libraries where the departments are scattered with no strategic central clearing point for readers, and do not provide enough attention in follow-up to see how the reader fares. This weakness is not entirely inherent in subject departmentation, but in building plan, management and supervision. And it is just as much a problem when readers so frequently have to visit a reference room, a circulating stack or room, a periodical room and a document room to get materials on a subject.

3. Tendency to "undue variation of departments in policies and quality of service," is due in turn to lack of "coordination of activities." This results in "a greater number of department heads who are harder to organize into a working cabinet than a smaller, higher paid group, with closer affiliations."⁹ We have never heard of actual instances of the latter problem and it may be imaginary, like the "jealousy between departments" cited by a visiting English librarian, which may arise in any form of organization. Departments cannot be allowed to operate in their own peculiar way. They must be tied together, guided and aimed toward a common objective, through coordination, supervision and co-operation.

Balance of Advantage

Assuming the St. Louis, Boston and Los Angeles libraries "as fair representatives of their types of organization," a 1947 study found "the subject-departmental type is the one best adapted to securing adequate and efficient service for the large public library. The functional type . . . St. Louis . . . appears inadequate to supply the needs of so large a city, while the mixed type of organization . . . Boston . . . though more nearly adequate to its task, is very expensive. . . . Only the subject-departmental . . . proved to be capable of providing for a large expansion of reference service at a low cost."¹⁰ If subject departments were unprofitable, the trend to these departments would surely have ceased, whereas almost every new building in cities of 100,000 or more has provided for them. The proposed large addi-

tion to the central library at Boston will give an opportunity for full subject departmentation not possible in the old building, and New York P.L. may be able to strengthen its services very greatly if a major open-space ground-level enlargement around the central reference building proves feasible.

SPLITOFF AND ORGANIZATION

In a city nearing a population of 80,000 or 90,000, the librarian and trustees need to consider whether to justify added cost for what many regard as their most significant service to the community. A well-administered, community-focused technical and business department, for example, may have a stimulating influence on local industry and trade. If its services could be measured for dollar value to each patron, it could be proved in many cities that the benefit far exceeds the cost.

Every type of library organization has its pros and cons. Traditional division by function and form of materials, that is, circulation, reference, periodicals, documents, etc., is seldom advocated for new buildings today. To enumerate these items is to disprove the assertion that the collection can be kept as one large coherent unit in libraries of any size. In many older buildings, reference books have been interfiled with circulating volumes to eliminate this artificial distinction. Actually the collections in all libraries are broken up in some fashion and this division increases as libraries grow larger. The majority of readers do not understand, nor are they concerned with, the classification scheme. For most public libraries the decimal classification scheme probably remains the best arrangement.

Breakdown by Book-User Types?

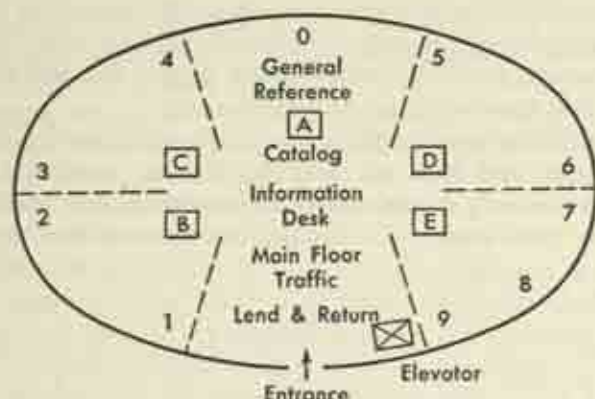
The idea was advanced in the 1930's that libraries would do better by readers if service were organized by adult reader approach to materials. It was impractical and no library has tried it.¹¹ The setting up of teachers', parents' or other special group rooms draws into their areas great numbers of books on such topics as education, psychology, social problems which are also needed by readers outside these groups and should be available in their normal place on the shelves. Another idea, to have two coordinator-promoters (for adult circulation and adult reference), involves greater cost and confusion, because both departments already have and should exercise these functions.

Specialized Knowledge Centers

It is the trained mind and special knowledge which underlie subject departmentation which make it so useful to readers. The idea can be

diagrammed as the field of knowledge arranged in its logical sequence by whatever classification the library uses, with a specially informed staff at service desks where the materials center around a few large major headings. Space near each service center is provided for a sufficient number of readers; separate rooms are not essential. Modern buildings are increasingly laid out as large general spaces. This permits a close relationship of subject departments created at the start, as well as a possible subsequent redivision of space without changing the building structure or breaking the logical sequence of materials.

The Simplicity of Subject Departmentation



It is not necessary to separate subjects into their own walled rooms, scattered over the architect's plans. Consider the special service points as set up at strategic subject centers, A-E, in the complete circle of knowledge as shown here, arranged in the library's normal classification sequence, 1-10. By keeping traffic to other floors close to the entrance, main-floor traffic is limited to those using main-floor departments. The catalog and overall information desk are close to the center. The general reference department, the keystone, is at the rear center. The subject entrances and service desks are close together to save everyone's time. If the space can be found, nothing need be disrupted when needs and funds justify an additional subject service point. And if a full-time staff is not available, the situation is about as it had previously been.

Keeping the Materials in Natural Sequence

If subject departments are thought of primarily as special-service points or reader areas, within the library's normally arranged total resources, we arrive at the crux of the matter and can reduce costs to salaries and minimum equipment. True, because periodicals and vertical file material play an increasing part in the type of service given, more racks and file cases must be bought. But if, by thus bringing all the subject materials together,

the volume of more substantial and convenient service is greater than that of other arrangements, then subject departmenting is hardly a disadvantage but a boon.

Building Plan Influences Separation

If a subject department is created in an existing building, immediately a series of practical difficulties arise. Nearly all buildings before 1940 were influenced by restrictive traditional architectural patterns and library organization. Getting the book, the reader and the service space together on the main floor may seem impossible. Experience shows that "Art and Music" can be detached from the circle of knowledge with least penalty but this requires assurance that adequate personnel will be available to staff the department in its isolation on another level.

Physical separation from the rest of the adult collection involves (1) inconvenience and extra steps for staff and readers hour after hour—a costly penalty; (2) probable duplication of the card catalog for this portion of the collection; (3) the handicap of confusion for all concerned because most subjects are tied to others, scattered over the building;¹² and (4) the necessity for inside telephones and other devices for quick interdepartmental communication.

If the department is to be for business, industry, technology or science, with their related subjects, most librarians desire to keep it on the main floor. A special room is not essential.

Special Service Without Special Room

The minimum staffing for a subject department to cover a seventy-two-hour-a-week service schedule has been discussed above under "Greater Costs." Libraries too small for this cannot justify a subject department, and some of them attempt only to give somewhat specialized attention to one subject field, leaving the subject materials in their usual location as a normal part of the book collection. One or two members of the regular staff are assigned for full time or part time and build up their knowledge of the subject and materials. If their ability is great enough and demands are heavy enough, a special service point can be created with or without a special service desk (depending on how close they can be to the materials), and with a sign displayed when this special service is in operation. This can hardly be called a department.

Difficulties arise, however, in such a simple operation. The natural tendency of assistants with a new responsibility is to go too far and spend too much time. Thus, activities outrun the budget. Individual subject knowledge of a general staff which attempts to give specialized subject service is generally spotty and thin. Graduates from the typical college curriculum

know something about literature and the broader area of the humanities, but it is hard to find assistants with special subject knowledge in other fields. Some librarians feel that courses should be given on subject materials and service in the larger library schools. Without the adequate knowledgeable specialized staff which is the basic element in a subject department, a library will hesitate to attempt special subject service.

The idea of staff specialization without actual departments was discussed enthusiastically in 1935 as applicable in college libraries.¹³ It may well deserve consideration, especially by large libraries with no early hope of a modern, open-plan building. The idea has received little attention in practice perhaps because of the continued neglect and understaffing of all forms of reference and reader advisory service. In other words, if general reference departments and reader advisors' desks were administratively supported and adequately staffed, it is likely that staff specializing would be developed more extensively. But it is a poor substitute for subject departments. In a typical library having only circulation and reference departments, specializing calls for flexibility and cooperation among assistants. If assigned to circulation, for instance, they can hardly leave their posts for more than occasional brief questions. This is one of the reasons why subject service must be considered as primarily a reference function to be performed by a staff adequately trained for reference work.

The Separate Department

Undoubtedly the public would be better served by more subject departmentation. Libraries in older buildings with no prospect of a new one could well study the rearrangement of their main floor to accommodate one or two subject departments. This would entail putting parts of the book stock closer to reader space, or vice versa, even at the cost of considerable structural change. A frequent possibility is the major extension of the old building to the sidewalk with the new space completely open and connected effectively to the old, with devices to overcome difference in levels. In planning a new building it is easier to relate subject departments properly. Many librarians and trustees should persist in endeavors to secure financing as well as a strategic location for a completely new central building and to plan it according to modern ideas.

Importance of Work Layout

Space does not permit repeating time-saving suggestions from Chapters 11 and 18. Someone could profitably make a comparative study of the pros and cons and time loss of operation centers and work flow in thirty or forty subject departments. A few effective layouts have been shown elsewhere.¹⁴

Coordination

The dangers from isolation arising from concentrating in one subject area can be reduced by listing overlapping subjects and developing staff awareness of the need to keep posted on the work of other departments. Frequent meetings to discuss common aims and problems are helpful. Careful supervision and tying together by an executive will coordinate behind-the-scenes departments, the branches, various reader groups and public relations.¹⁵

FUNCTION OF GENERAL REFERENCE AMONG SUBJECT DEPARTMENTS

If all the fields of knowledge are broken up into six or eight divisions, there is still a large residue of general, collective material which can best serve an important type of reader, and his reference questions, at a central clearance point, a General Reference or General Service Department. The notion is unrealistic that General Reference is primarily to answer easy, quick questions in all fields. Each subject department has its own flow of such questions, which often develop into intensive search, and general reference has its quota of difficult, long-search questions, particularly in the field of national and general bibliography. Numerous libraries find it profitable to have a general Information Desk, supplied with dictionary and *World Almanac*, to handle questions, including many telephone inquiries, that obviously can be answered in a minute or two with little search and at the point where most questions are usually presented by readers. The amount and variety of this general reference work is surprising indeed, especially its servicing of general and national biographies. Several large city libraries with six or eight busy subject departments find that the General Reference Room is as busy as any of the special departments.¹⁶

The more frequent situation, with only two or three subject departments, leaves the "general" department with the bulk of reader service. Many librarians are not sure how far to go in adding staff and equipment even when they can foresee that the volume and quality of public service will drastically increase. Some major subjects, such as history, biography, travel cut across current events or economic and social problems. Thus, there has been some tendency recently to leave these more closely interrelated major subjects, as well as the general and collective materials, in a General Service Department designed to give as efficient, intensive service as can be given by a more specialized subject department. This is a large order, indeed. In several recent buildings a reference center is set up near the general reference books and the adult circulating books in the 800's, 900's part

of the 300's, as well as the 000's. Such a large general service operation appears to have been dictated in several cases by inadequacy of main floor space and budget limitations.

Whether to departmentalize Civics and Sociology; Education, Philosophy and Religion; History, Biography and Travel; and Literature as four more departments involves not only costs of staffing and overhead but an understanding of the cross-ramifications between some of these subjects, and the difficulties of laying them out in the building. Lacking a conviction himself, the librarian may fail to convince a board of trustees that the larger the scope of a general department the less effective it is in serving the public in the subject areas. A study of reader questions and how they are handled in general and in special departments, such as technology, and the degree of reader satisfaction, in keeping with the constantly increasing specialization of the times, would seem to give the benefit of the argument to creating from five to eight subject departments in cities of 500,000 and upward. A General Reference Department will still be needed.

THE SUBJECT DEPARTMENT HEAD'S WORK

The functions of department heads have been discussed in Chapters 15 and 16, and those of reference heads in Chapter 18, so that here we need only stress the development of (a) the special collections; (b) the special knowledges and abilities of the staff; and (c) the penetration of the department's special services into more and more of the subject-activity centers of the community.

Developing Staff Knowledge

The head of a subject department has to stimulate the development of his staff's background knowledge in the special subject field. He must (a) discover, evaluate and appoint assistants specially prepared, or at least interested in the subject field;¹⁷ and (b) see that they are allowed to remain in the subject department where their knowledge is of greatest help, and not rotated in other departments for mental exercise or "career development" by the chief librarian, who may not realize the penalty to readers when the accumulated special knowledge of an assistant is lost. When assistants approach a dead end for lack of vacancies higher up in so specialized a department, some adjustment of salary and an opportunity for creative assignments should be developed to avoid frustration. There are so many libraries today with subject departments that most assistants, if they desire, can have a career within the subject field of their choice. This is one of the reasons often used to attract them to work in subject departments.

The subject department "specialist" presumably begins with some knowledge of at least one segment of the subject field. He extends his knowledge to make it fit the reader needs of his department. He is not an expert. No one can start with a deep knowledge of so many areas as a subject department includes. But he can do better by a third or an eighth than he can by the whole field of knowledge. Hurt's 1935 article on specializing notes that the library assistant need not become a master of the subject.¹² Time and conditions forbid. He needs rather to comprehend major aspects of the field and most of all to know its literature. The special librarian has a more limited and specialized field and clientele than the subject department head. But the latter like the former is "the bibliographical brains of his clients. Many of them know more about their subjects than he does, but he is the one who knows the literature of the field and how and where to get at the information wanted at short notice."¹⁸ His knowledge must include the scope, purpose, and value of many individual books.^{19, 20} Some of Hurt's points are here adapted for the benefit of inexperienced workers in subject departments:

1. Peruse a good topical outline of the subject content of the field. We have already suggested studying the classification scheme of the department's complete coverage for perspective and discovery of little-used subjects.
2. Scan articles and texts that give the gist of departmental subjects, and know some of the terms.
3. Get acquainted with the best annotated guides to the literature in the field. A few are noted under their subject heads below.
4. Maintain an up-to-date basic list of twenty-five or fifty of the most significant titles on the department's subject coverage, including a few textbooks.
5. Add to the basic list those books on more specialized subjects in heavy local demand.
6. Look for current publications from the major committees and organizations in the field. Know what they are doing.
7. Scan as many current magazines in the department as possible. They give a sense of reality and reveal many aspects not covered by books. They afford clues for answering reference questions, even though included in the current periodical indexes, which of course are indispensable. We omit Hurt's other items but they deserve study.

Leadership in Community Contacts

The subject department head is properly looked to by his staff to lead in outside contacts and acquaintance, as discussed in Chapter 15. He should explore the less-known activities in the city, which may employ hundreds of citizens in production, construction, shipping, merchandising, etc. The more and the sooner such contacts, the faster the department can make library use a part of community thinking equipment.

Drawing on Outside Information Sources

The subject department should draw upon the resources of other libraries,^{24, 26} by using: (a) interlibrary loan; (b) union lists; (c) descriptive guides to other libraries' special collections; and (d) photocopies, instead of borrowing the material itself.

THE THREE MOST COMMON DEPARTMENTS

With the exception of Manley on business departments, there seems to be no detailed American manual for any subject department. Several brief general descriptions appear in library periodicals, but nothing about their management. A practical handbook is needed for departments in each of six or eight subject fields to discuss objectives, coverage, organization, materials, staffing, methods and services in a sampling of the many such subject departments now in operation. The A. L. A.'s Reference Services Division might well bring this to reality.

Layouts and lists of special equipment for typical technical, art and music, and local history departments were published in 1941.²² We have not found similar layouts in more recent publications.

Art and Music

Art and music may not be matters of first importance in a community. Neither are they sources of employment for more than a small portion of the population. Nevertheless, these two subjects because of their popularity comprise the most frequently found subject department. Art received more attention in previous years, whereas today music has taken the lead because of the influences of radio, TV and musical recordings. Most librarians feel more competent in one or the other than in both, but the cost of a staff to man two separate departments makes it practical to combine art and music in one department, sometimes labeled Fine Arts. These subjects can be separated from the general library collections with less penalty than can any other major subjects. They are often placed on the second or third floor without great inconvenience, if there is an elevator. See footnotes for references on both subjects.²⁷⁻²⁹

Before organizing an Art and Music Department, one must consider whether or not it is to be allied with other audio-visual materials. Art, Music and Audio-Visual may well comprise a larger, busier and more closely knit department. Or an Audio-Visual Department may be expanded to include all the art and music materials including books. This setup is in operation at Flint, population 200,000, in its 1959 building. Musical

records and scores involve equipment and sound-proof rooms, as well as an experienced staff. Such materials, whether loaned or not, tie music and audio-visual together closely. Not all films, pictures, slides and other visual material are related to art, but many of them are. In any event this triple grouping must be weighed in the light of the building plan and the budget. See Chapter 23 on audio-visual materials.

Business and Industry

If this heading were "Business and Economics," it would more clearly define the narrow scope of what many consider the most important subject field a library should develop; for many communities, business or manufacture is the chief source of livelihood. The public library in a city of 500,000 is generally justified in creating a separate department to serve business, financial and office work clientele.

Here again, as an economy, some cities of over 500,000 and most smaller ones from 100,000 up have considered they are carrying specialization far enough if they combine business, industry, technology and science into a large, busy department concerned with practical, everyday working subjects. A good short label is difficult to choose, but these four subjects are all so related that in the light of recent library progress it may be held that any city of 100,000, and any industrialized city of 90,000 or even 80,000, can hardly escape the need to give special service in this area, assuming that it has a strong general reference service. For material on these service fields, see chapter-end footnotes.³⁰⁻³³

Required materials and equipment include 8,000 to 10,000 books on open shelves alongside 30 to 50 reader seats, a departmental catalog if the service desk is over 75 feet from the main catalog, display racks for 150 to 200 periodical titles (Toledo in 1959 took 420 science and tech periodicals) and 10 to 20 four-tray vertical file cases. These are just a start for a department which is almost certain to bring heavy response, if the staff is capable and the potential clientele is made to realize the valuable help that awaits inquiries.

A 1960 survey of salaries in special libraries showed that scientific and technical librarians get about a third more salary than art librarians, and about a fourth more than those in biology, medical, business and finance libraries.³⁴ Publicity plays a large part in developing service to business and technical workers. For art and music the reader response, at first at least, is more impressive than that for practical subjects, probably because practical-minded workers and businessmen hardly ever think in terms of possible help from libraries. Thousands of small businesses fail each year, many of them because they ignore management methods such as are discussed in material to be found on library shelves.³⁵

Local History and Genealogy

Many libraries have some collection of local materials, though often no one department or person is directly responsible for their care, servicing and development. Increased leisure and promotion by historical societies have stimulated interest in local history to the point that a city of 50,000, especially in a regional or county center, needs to consider special service (at least some staff member specially interested) if not a separate department.³⁶⁻³⁷

Before deciding on space, personnel and coverage, one must look into the library's relations with any local history society; this may be largely a prestige group more interested in museums or in genealogy than in a working informational library. Duplication of materials and activities is likely, but cannot the library and the society cooperate? Whoever heads the library's local history department should discover and stimulate local enthusiasts to prepare and write scholarly materials as well as popularizations for local papers and for young people.

Housing a local historical society in the library building is not undertaken lightly. The future should be safeguarded by a clear understanding that the society's printed materials are to be available to everyone according to the library's schedule, and that the society is to finance the salary of a competent (not merely a deserving) person who works under library regulations—someone to collect materials, stimulate their use and develop a reference service. Not many historical societies located outside the state capitals realize they can promote their cause through cooperation with the local library. For this reason the library generally must go ahead on its own.

As a 1952 survey by Ander showed,³⁸ public libraries accept the obligation to collect and preserve printed and manuscript materials about their areas, including maps, reports, biographical sketches, newspapers, posters, notices, clippings, publications of societies and photographs (thousands having historical significance if properly labeled can be gathered, simply by asking the owners of the negatives). Much can be done by volunteer enthusiasts, including Friends of the Library, and by the stimulation of exhibits and publicity, with recognition to donors and helpers. Many family records full of vital information are annually destroyed, when door-to-door solicitation would bring them to the library. The state library or commission can lead in encouraging local libraries through state-wide cooperative indexing and union catalogs, as in Illinois.

Organization for local history service involves a high degree of resourcefulness and ability to ask for help, as well as supervision and encouragement of helpers. Branch libraries need to gather neighborhood materials. With busy staffs, this is almost entirely a matter of seeking volunteers among local readers. Invariably a library which collects and attempts to sort and prepare this material is swamped with details; the head needs to break

down the various aspects of the work—discovering, begging, receiving and acknowledging (with carbons of "thank you" records filed chronologically as a sort of accession book that becomes very useful), cataloging, indexing, publicizing, preparing exhibits, answering questions and encouraging the preparation of needed articles and leaflets on local subjects.⁴⁶

Genealogy

Anything more than superficial service in this field involves expensive material and trained assistance. Only a few large and hardly any small libraries attempt it. They cannot afford it and most taxpayers resent such costly activity which benefits so few. Instead they refer it to state libraries or state historical libraries which can handle competent genealogical searching on a large scale and capitalize on the investment.⁴⁷ Some libraries have a printed explanation as to why they cannot afford to attempt this kind of intensive search. In other libraries a time fee is charged, or inquirers are referred to a list of competent local genealogists who charge a fee. Local history departments frequently include genealogies of those few families which have played an outstanding part in community development.

OTHER SUBJECT DEPARTMENTS

We forgo discussing further special departments, partly for lack of space, partly because the patterns of further division are so differently worked out in the 254 systems of over 100,000 population. With a fourth of the population in school and college, education is a subject so important that it needs special service. But in the last few years it has usually been combined either with the 300's, sociology, or with the 100's and 200's. Social, economic, local and world problems play a large part in American thinking at present. A large department for these subjects has seemed to some librarians in the 300,000 to 500,000 population group to be a practical compromise between too many and too few departments, rounding out the circle with another large department called "The Humanities," but comprising only the 800's and 900's; just how to draw a line between their coverages clear enough for readers to understand? For social science and humanities departments and special collections in various fields, see footnotes.⁴⁸⁻⁵²

South Bend P. L. 132,000 population, has 5 departments on its 1959 main floor: Business and Technology, Literature and Language, Young Adult, History and Travel, Sociology and Religion (a combination we have not found elsewhere); and two on the second floor: Art and Music, and Children's Room. Dayton P. L.'s 1961 building, population 262,000, has 3 departments on the main floor: Social Sciences (100's, 200's, 300's, travel, history, biography),

Literature and Fine Arts (000's, 400's, 700's, 800's, fiction) and a Browsing Room, but no general reference unit. Industry and Science (500's, 600's, and part of 300's) is on the second floor, reached by two elevators. In both these libraries and as customary elsewhere in recent years, decisions were reached after many staff conferences and a study of solutions elsewhere, influenced by probable budget difficulties, etc. Kansas City P. L., population 475,000, has 6 departments on the first floor of its 1960 building: Social Sciences; Business and Technology; Literature; History, Travel and Biography; Popular Library; and a combination of Education, Philosophy and Religion with General Reference, at the center rear. Each of these is supplemented by balcony space and by two underground stack levels. On the second floor are: Art and Music, Film Service and Local History.²⁴ The 1955 Dallas P. L. building (population 600,000) has 8 departments: General Reference; Audio-Visual; Science and Industry (including business); Local History and Genealogy; Literature and History; Community Living; Family Living; Fine Arts and Fashion (the latter financed largely by local business concerns).

Subject departments or divisions in large college and university libraries do not parallel the organization of those in public libraries, because (a) the university library departments correspond to the curriculum objectives and academic departments, e.g., the sciences, the social sciences and the humanities; (b) as these three groupings suggest, they do not correspond with the actually distinct fields of interest and demand of the general public; and (c) in most cases the academic libraries have been influenced by the scattering of subject materials around a sizable campus, and the thinking of their librarians and faculties is in terms of college departments and separate buildings.

It would be of great help to have an intensive analysis made of what *has* been done, and why, with critical discussion in the light of current national viewpoints as to the most effective divisions among major subject fields in larger public libraries. In view of existing local solutions and successful operations it may be concluded that subject departmentation currently looked to as an effective type of organization for better service has not gone too far and has not proved too costly or complicated, in proportion to the population sizes of the cities where it is operating. It bids fair to increase to meet public needs just as special libraries are increasing. As noted above, the solution is far more influenced by the building plan, and should more completely influence the planning of new buildings, than many librarians and their boards and architects have realized.

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CHAPTER 20

Administration of Young Adult Services

The library's services to the intermediate or young adult group is considered here—directly after the major adult public service departments—as an extension of adult work to a slightly lower age level, rather than as an upward extension of children's materials and viewpoints. We note first some social conditions which pose a national challenge and the public libraries' response thereto; second, the organization and resources of young adult work and how it is managed; third, the range of services given; and fourth, the relationships of young adult work to other units of the library and to outside agencies.

CHALLENGE AND RESPONSE

Challenge

In our American schools a child typically attends elementary school from his sixth to his fourteenth year, and from fourteen to eighteen he is in high school. Nearly all libraries issue an adult borrowers' card at fourteen and consider as an "adult" anyone who has completed eighth grade or is older than the school-leaving age (fifteen or sixteen), for reasons presently given. But most young people do not make an easy adjustment from children's room to adult departments. High school activities give rise to library needs not just like those of mature adults. Teen-agers are under the adolescent strains of awakening to adult activities and of evolving individual personalities. They are subjected to pressures and temptations which they can hardly handle. They are different both from children and from adults, and often seem resentful of adult ideas, objectives and domination. They have their own curricular needs, maturational needs and special problems.¹

Today with America's dedication to "a high school education for all," over 80 per cent of all youth attend high school, and almost 60 per cent

graduate; forty years ago only 60 per cent ever attended high school and only 30 per cent graduated.² Each year a larger percentage continue into and through four years of college. These and other factors create greater demands on books and library service, e.g., the use of multiple sources instead of the single textbook, and the broadening curriculum to provide more vocational courses, more science and more other subjects for the talented. There are new problems of "growing up," sex, exploring the world of adult activities, choosing a life work, getting that first job, the restless search for action, excitement and entertainment—these difficult problems are made more so by commercialized stimulation. Adolescence is the stage between immaturity and such maturity as people achieve, in the struggle to understand themselves, their relations to others and the world about them. Like all other people, young adults wish to be recognized as individuals and to be allowed opportunities for creativity and growth.

Teen-agers endure pressures and problems in our culture which are peculiar to their age group. Dropouts from school are still substantial in number; one-third of those who enter high school never graduate.³ These dropouts seem to be of the nonreading, nonstudious type most difficult to attract by any library promotion. The tremendous emphasis on money and the possession of material goods creates an imposing market in the earnings and allowances of young people, estimated at \$9 billion a year.⁴ Early marriage rushes them into other new problems. Juvenile delinquency resists solution or even correct analysis, though evidently one factor is the inability of many parents to raise children who are well adjusted psychologically and emotionally; another is the inability to read easily and like it, which affects school grades and leads to a sense of inadequacy and frustration. Other contributing causes include the long-term insecurity in international relations, and the availability and lure of liquor, narcotics and automobiles. Crime and negative behavior follow the example set by adults and mirrored in newspapers, movies, and TV. Increasingly more young people are involved in these problems, and not only those in slum areas or in minority groups wherein the greatest incidence occurs.

Response

Various social institutions are attempting to respond to these challenges of adolescence; the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth gave most of its attention to them.⁵ While young adult library service can be traced back before World War I, a major landmark was the opening of the Robert Louis Stevenson Room at Cleveland in 1925, and a rapid spread of such facilities came after World War II. Today several hundred libraries provide organized special services for the fourteen-to-eighteen-year group, running over at either end to include all the teen-age years.⁶

Much of the impetus for this came from the realization that libraries were losing most of this great throng of potential readers and patrons between childhood and adulthood. Even counting high-school-age students as adults, few public libraries register more than a third of the total adult population as library borrowers, compared with upward of 90 per cent of elementary-school children registered. Juvenile books now constitute over half the total circulation of American public libraries; and though adult circulation figures include most of the books borrowed by the fourteen-to-eighteen age group, the total adult percentage of the whole has been decreasing slowly but surely.⁷ Librarians believe that library materials and library services are potentially of just as great interest and value to teenagers and to adults as to children. But to get any results, this faith needs to be translated into more active programs and practice than can be found in any library.

Service to young adults has been increasingly related to their school needs or at most to their recreational reading and by extension therefore to their maturational needs. Few libraries have attempted to meet the needs of out-of-school youth; none seems to have succeeded enough to continue. The Detroit Public Library in 1954-55, with notable staff and resources and careful planning, and with a foundation grant of \$10,000, reached only 150 young people in all, between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one, out of 2,200 approached of a total of 5,000 who in just the previous year had left school without graduating.⁸ This is one of the great frontiers yet to be explored by libraries; better understanding of the thinking of these drop-outs must precede new attempts to serve them. Librarians should help parents, organizations and schools to encourage more students to continue in school and to get college educations. To do this, librarians need to know more about the methods and procedures of teaching reading, since the great majority of dropouts, delinquents and unadjusted students, in non-public as well as public schools, don't like to read and cannot read easily.⁹

For a long time ahead, most public libraries will have all they can do, in serving young adults, to meet their needs as students and to provide them with recreational and general interest materials. In this aspect of young adult service alone the traffic and the problems are overwhelming. The majority of high schools have inadequate school libraries. Most school libraries are open only half an hour after the closing bell rings, and not at all at night, on weekends or during school holidays; the factor of school bus transit poses great difficulties in changing school library hours. And few have the range of materials to be found in even the average public library. Under the circumstances, high school students can be expected to be regular users of the local public library, and in fact they often come in such numbers as to constitute a problem.¹⁰ Though librarians have an obligation to strive for better school libraries, the justification for public library service to high school students, even in providing them with curricular-related

materials, is simply that they too are part of the total clientele of the public library and their library service needs are not being adequately met.

ORGANIZATION AND RESOURCES

Organization

Experience in young adult work has pointed up a few principles, but as yet no one pattern applicable to all communities. Service to young adults should be organized in connection with the adult departments and not with the children's department. Because these young people are close to adulthood and are moving away from childhood views and ways and interests, young adult librarians should relate their point of view and background of service to those of adults.¹¹ To meet their needs the adult circulation and reference departments are indispensable. They also involve the upper level of children's materials, the usual run of adult resources, specialized materials such as films, and many of the special techniques or functions, such as group discussion leadership, readers' advisory and especially reference service. It is useful therefore to think of all young adult services as designed to introduce high-school-age students to the library's adult facilities. It is not necessary or desirable that work with young adults be closely tied to or completely identified with any one adult department, or be separated and isolated. For organizational and administrative purposes, the young adult librarian is often assigned to the adult circulation department, or to the popular library if there is one. In libraries with numerous branches and with system-wide coordinators for adult services and for children's services, it is natural to have a Y. A. specialist in each branch and a coordinator of services for young adults, to stimulate, supervise and tie together the city-wide service.¹²

Location

Service to young adults has to have an operating center somewhere in the building. Its core is a trained mind and a service desk. Its organizational place is influenced by its physical locus, and this is often dictated by the building plan. The minimum arrangement is a corner of the adult reading room or a section of shelves, in the midst of adult materials and services. Many large city libraries have a separate room for young adults (though in recent buildings this idea is unusual), or a fairly large area of the general adult reading room with a separate staff and desk. A few very large libraries have tried having a separate building, but to give the services needed this demands a large duplication of nonfiction and reference books and trained reference staff. Teen-agers wish neither to be isolated nor re-

fused access to the regular adult facilities. They do not like to be considered a special or problem group; daily and hourly they call on the staffs of the adult departments for adult materials and services. They like to think they are on the road to adulthood, and a goodly proportion of them have greater interests in public and world problems, are coming up with more ingenious and promising ideas in science and industry, and are using more substantial books than their elders. Some librarians feel that even a separate young adult room segregates its patrons. The attitude of the young adult librarian in a given scene should not be a deciding factor, for students of organization realize that many supervisors have a psychological desire to be set off in a small world of their own. Fortunately physical changes to achieve the best results can usually be made in an existing building.

Staff

Major factor in the success of young adult work is the personality, technical competence and ability of its head and staff, and especially the realization that the library assistant is *simpatico* and is trying to understand and appreciate the reader. Young adults are likely to turn away from unattractive, unresponsive, unprepared staff members. Those who work with high-school-age young people need a genuine liking for them, with all their shortcomings and imperfections, and a sincere desire to treat them as adults without expecting them always to react as adults. These staff attitudes cannot be counterfeited, compensated for or easily developed. They are more likely to be found in younger assistants with fresh and open minds, who can learn to invite, receive and refrain from comment on young people's opinions, thoughts and reactions.¹³

Technical competence means not only a knowledge of library tools and methods of operation, but of the books written for teen-agers, the psychology of adolescence and modern high school curriculum and teaching methods. All these help the staff to fit readers and books together. Adolescence is a period of stress, and the young adult librarian needs to know what the psychologists can tell him of it. The problem of noise and disorder in the library can be met intelligently and positively, or it can be irritating and frustrating. Librarians experienced in handling high-school-age patrons have learned such techniques as to anticipate trouble (and separate trouble-makers or serve them promptly and have them leave); to enforce from the start of the school year a rule against social activities and other use of library space for nonrelated purposes; and to use monitors, to require a school librarian's request or a parent's presence, or if necessary to eject some students.¹⁴

Because in most cases there is only one young adult librarian in a given agency, he must know the contents and values of the books he recommends, or lose the confidence of his patrons. The Enoch Pratt Library expects

each new young adult librarian to have read at least three hundred titles on a selected list,¹⁵ and fortnightly staff discussions are held on the merits of different books.

Assignment of Duties

Qualified young adult librarians are in especially short supply, partly from the competition for school librarians. Most public libraries do well to have one fully qualified librarian assigned full time to young adult work, but desirably every branch should have a young adult librarian as well as a children's librarian and an adult services librarian, the latter concentrating on reference and advisory help. Often the one full-time Y. A. person works through other members of the staff and has nonprofessional assistants assigned to him. To do this, he must separate duties and responsibilities which he will take as his own from those which he can delegate to others. He will develop the program of work with young adults, initiate new programs and projects, train and supervise the other staff members and help them build their knowledge of books, build up the Y. A. collection, as supplementing the adult collection, and maintain constructive relations with other departments, with the high-school libraries and with any available student advisory group. He needs to be directly on the job at least part time, serving the young adults themselves, to keep in close touch with their current needs and interests. He will assign to his untrained and perhaps part-time colleagues to read, study and prepare as fast and as well as they can to handle the load of day-to-day service, including selecting and ordering materials, compiling and publishing lists, arranging public service programs, giving reading guidance and leaving reference services to the reference staff. That under these meager conditions, with untrained assistants and little time, results are not often very substantial is one of the results of spreading a library budget too thin.

Materials

Besides the discussion in Chapter 17 on the adult book collection, in Chapter 21 on children's books, and in Chapter 27 on book selection in general, a few special points are made here. Novels or nonfiction written expressly for the tastes and interests of young people of high school age have developed mostly since about 1940. Many adult books and some children's books will continue close to the hearts of young adults, but there are more good books each year, neither juvenile nor adult in their maturity level, in their values, in their depth of detail and in their subject matter; these speak to the condition of young people with greater insight and to greater purpose than ever before. Careful selection, based on high standards, is needed.¹⁶

But young adults need, want and will use all types of library materials. Their shelves should include new and old titles, adult as well as juvenile (perhaps in a ratio of four to one), in all main subject fields and especially fiction, for reference work and for lending. There should also be available career and vocational guidance materials, several hundred college and university catalogs, currently useful pamphlets, an array of consequential magazines, phonograph records and a record player with earphones, and access to the library's files of bound or microfilmed periodicals and newspapers. Reader interest classification, discussed in Chapter 17, encourages individual browsing and general reading. One assistant should be assigned to examine books regularly for repair, rebinding, replacement, duplication or withdrawal; the collection has to be kept fresh and vital. Plastic book jackets, interesting displays, bright colors, comfortable furniture and an air of informality and of relaxed discipline will go far to provide the desirable setting.

SERVICES TO THE INDIVIDUAL READER

As additional experience and experimentation accumulate and young people's interests become better understood, the library's service to them will broaden and deepen, including reading guidance, reference work, curriculum-related services and meeting maturational needs.

Reading Guidance

The major purpose is to attract the young adult to books thought to be useful and relevant in enriching his life, developing his personality, increasing his knowledge or giving him worthy objectives and incentives. This requires knowledge of books and of their authors and their qualities, and skill at communicating the essence and peculiar nature of each book.¹⁷ But one has to learn how to refrain from pushing books on a young adult which he does not want, while encouraging him to exercise freedom of choice, and accepting unperturbed hostile reactions to one's own literary values. Most young adults like some guidance, but they need even more to be helped to develop their own standards and judgment in order to become self-reliant. Indirect methods of stimulation and guidance include book lists, book displays and exhibits, book talks, book reviews written by young people themselves and published¹⁸ or given over the radio or television, book discussion groups and activity clubs. Other possible devices include high school book fairs, participation in vocational guidance programs, film showings, library tours, visits of public library personnel to high school classes and assemblies, and activity programs with guest authors or other celebrities. Publicity can reach eighth-grade classes in the spring just be-

fore they graduate, when psychologically they are most ready for "growing up" to the young adult room.

Reference Work

Answering informational questions of high school students involves two major policies. To what extent shall the public library offer this service to students from schools with their own libraries? If given by the public library, should it be a function of the special young adult room or of the general adult reference department? Whatever the theoretical considerations (as discussed in Chapter 22), the fact is that for very practical reasons the public library is giving more and more school-connected service. In brief, high school students are as legitimate patrons of the public library as any other group of people who may or may not have their own special system of libraries too.

In the small library or in the branch library nearly all the usable space is in one large public room, with only one public service desk or at most only one adult service desk. Reference service is usually neglected or of an elementary amateur sort, unless there is a full-time trained reference worker. There is heavy pressure from other patrons and other work. The result in many libraries and in the average branch is the familiar one of too small a staff and too few trained persons trying to do too many things, and in this case attempting to give reference service which requires special knowledge and skills. A top-priority need in several thousand libraries and branches is an additional full-time trained reference librarian.

The penalty for attempting reference service in a separate young adult room is not only the duplication of materials, but the duplication of the skill and salary of the trained librarian absorbed in reference work with no time for personal counseling on out-of-school reading. We have suggested elsewhere the use of a *Quiet Adult Room*, screened off from the noise of high school groups, as a device to protect the interest of adults who complain of noise and confusion. A compromise is to duplicate in another room some of the most-used reference books and thus provide almost self-service to the many students who can look up answers to their own questions and thus relieve some pressure in the reference department. On the other hand, if a library can afford the services of a trained Y. A. librarian, some librarians hold that there are at least three good reasons for diverting high school students' reference questions to him. This service provides a natural transition to the encouragement of individually motivated reading; the young adult librarian needs to know the current assignments and curricular needs of the students properly to select books or to arrange programs; and in most cases the adult reference desk is too busy with older adults to do justice to the high school students. But in any case the

public librarian does not write the essay, review the grammar, advise on the outline of a composition or direct a study hall.

The library's fundamental Y. A. service is best accomplished independently of concern for school library service, which may easily overwhelm it, whereas high school reference service is often handled better in the reference department, with little attention paid to creative counseling for individual reading. The basic objective of Y. A. work gets lost in the traffic stream. The Y. A. collection should be kept small enough for the librarian to master and to know intimately so that among it he may help the young adult find an enjoyable book.

Curriculum-Related Services

The needs of high school students today for library materials and library service are rapidly expanding and have to be met by the provision of more and better materials and of new and different facilities, and by more and better publicity, both in their school libraries and their public libraries. The reasons are given in Chapter 22, but it seems only sensible that the public library should build on this situation and develop its services, within the limits of available resources, so as to increase its influence in the lives and reading of such students. In other words this is a large clientele almost knocking at the door and full of definite needs.

Maturational Interests

The young adult librarian needs to be aware of and to understand the concerns of young people as they mature. Besides studying current literature of the psychological and sociological aspects of youth, this involves a definite objective: close personal relationship with as many individual young persons as possible, trying to learn from them before attempting to advise them. Young people often need and welcome the calm advice and indirect assistance of an adult who is not a parent and not a teacher. The librarian's influence as informal counselor is an aspect of library service which needs development and exploration.¹⁰ Maturational topics include boy-girl relationships, choosing a lifework, preparing for and getting into college, and hobbies and other nonschool activities. While the library is only one of several sources of information for the modern teen-ager, the voluntary, self-chosen and ever-present assistance available in a well-stocked and well-managed library with a tactful and effective staff is a major and much appreciated asset to the young adult. Books often provide the best help for solving personal problems, even when a community has other organized facilities.

The facts of life are often far easier learned through books at the right

age level, especially for the shy youngster, than in any other way. The painful process of learning how to get along on a date provides grist for countless newspaper columns, and a good library has books which are even more useful. How to maintain one's own standard of conduct in the face of group opinion and other aspects of character development are often well revealed through books, suggested by carefully prepared book lists, book talks, young people's book discussion groups, film showings²⁰ and other such indirect guidance devices. Before they are out of the teens, many young people are married or engaged, or seriously contemplating marriage; as a result, the library needs some of the many good books now available for young people on the various facets of this subject.

The young adult room is the logical place for the best up-to-date information on choosing an occupation, for this is the age group likely to use it most. Pamphlets constitute the best of this literature, when organized for self-service and allowed to circulate. Novels may convey the spirit of different occupations, which is as important to the young person trying to decide on a career as the letter of the current facts.

About half of all high-school graduates do not go to college.²¹ For them, getting a job, civil service examinations, military service regulations and opportunities, how to handle oneself in an employment interview and other aspects of everyday work life are pressing concerns. Books can be of great help, provided the staff knows and cares enough to have the materials ready, and publicizes them. Teen-agers need this help to bridge the gap from school to work; they are at a disadvantage because they often know little about the kinds of jobs open, or about their own skills. So teen-age unemployment is proportionately higher than for adults just coming on the labor market.²²

Those who go through college, and may contribute so much to the nation, will also have problems and questions, as on college entrance examinations, the choice of college, scholarships and other means of financing one's way and preparing for college life. Printed materials are always needed in these areas. The public library administers no aptitude tests, but the young adult librarian should know where they can be taken, and should know of local training agencies, technical schools, guidance services, etc. If public libraries begin to organize and staff themselves to give greater attention to the problems and information requests of individual readers—which many consider the major current need for development if libraries are to serve their major function—it is likely that the better libraries will provide selected materials to back up trained counselor help for the thousands in the 17-25-year-old group who know not where to turn for intelligent, objective guidance in their jobs, their leisure activities and their life planning; the right book or magazine article can often be "prescribed" successfully.

The world of personal hobbies, sports and other out-of-school activities

of young people, is one in which books are always useful, even though the outdoor sportsman may be surprised to find it so. The hobby of reading may stem from encouraging personal libraries and book buying by high-school-age students, by means of paperbacks and book club titles, and prizes or certificates redeemable in books at a local store. In these and other ways, the public library can see that books play an increasing part in the lives of busy young adults today.

WORKING WITH OTHER AGENCIES

With Other Units of the Library

Young adult work in public libraries must draw on and contribute to the activities of other library departments, other institutions outside the library and the young people themselves. It needs to be correlated with the children's department from which its patrons are just graduating, the special purpose departments which young adults will have occasion to use, such as the reference department and audio-visual services. The young adult librarian has the obligation to contribute, from his special competence, to the progress of the other agencies, to cooperate with them on projects of mutual concern, and to draw from them what their specialization enables them to contribute to the welfare and progress of Y. A. work. Established procedures and fields of interest may have to be modified to provide for the handling of young adult materials, services and programs, and staff members need to be so reminded.

With Agencies Outside the Library

The young adult librarian has a special relationship with the high schools, their teachers and their school libraries. The school and the public library are natural allies; they have a common interest in developing worthwhile reading habits. Teachers are busy and the public library's program—however worthy—is one of many which is urged on the schools for emphasis and integration in the crowded curriculum. The public library staff must take the initiative, to become familiar with the curriculum and teaching methods of the local schools, and to take on themselves the greater part of the burden of cooperative projects. Some high school librarians resent the intrusion of the public library into their sphere of activity; these must be shown by patience and concrete experience that the public library seeks not to displace them but to supplement them.²³ Other high school libraries provide recreational reading so freely that the task of the public library is to persuade them to shift their emphasis to the curricular nonfiction material which their students need. In many cities now a joint committee of appropriate administrators, teachers and librarians discuss matters of

mutual concern, resolve differences and difficulties and provide a means of communication. Chapter 22 suggests the periodic meetings of high school and young adult librarian to exchange information and to smooth operating relationships. A policy statement should be prepared spelling out the services which the high school libraries and the public library offer to teachers and students and how they supplement each other.

The young adult librarian needs to keep in touch with other youth-serving agencies and their programs, e.g., science fairs or essay contests. All that potentially concerns high-school-age students should be of interest to the young adult librarian, if the library is to gear its programs to the work of these other agencies. The opportunities have hardly been scratched. Book stores, for example, welcome opportunities to cooperate with the public library in activities such as a book fair. These youth-serving agencies other than schools constitute one of the few organized methods to reach young people who are no longer students.

With the Young People Themselves

Adolescents have their fads and fashions, which conform to the supposed standards of their own group. A student advisory board or youth council, given a real job to report opinions from its peers and having its judgment respected, will not be an empty gesture; it can tap the tremendous energy and enthusiasm of young people on matters in which they are truly interested. It should be consulted on policies affecting the library's Y. A. program, especially on the services of the young adult room. It can suggest appropriate and needed activities, select student book reports for publication by the library, produce TV or radio programs on books or book-related topics, or conduct a survey of high school students' use of books and libraries. High school students tend to commit themselves to programs which they have had a share in shaping and in conducting. In turn, the members of the student advisory board should receive recognition for their efforts, such as a newspaper story at the time of their appointment or on what they are accomplishing, and a thank-you letter from the librarian when they conclude their work.

Young adult workers find their activities tremendously challenging as a way to bring books into the lives of young people, and the future of Y.A. service is full of promise.

FOOTNOTES AND SPECIAL MATERIAL

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2. *Statistical Summary of Education: 1955-56*. (Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1954-56. Chapter 1. GPO. 1959.) U.S. Office of Education. p. 13.

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7. See Rose Vainstein, *Statistics of Public Libraries: 1955-56*. Chapter 5 of the U.S. Office of Education, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1954-56, 1959. p. 32. Also the Index of American Public Library Circulation in current issues of A.L.A. *Bulletin*, and in Table 1 of Chapter 1 above.

8. Detroit Public Library. *Backgrounds for Successful Living for Independent Young People: Report of Detroit Public Library Youth Service Project for Out-of-School Young People*. 19 p. 1955.

9. See George Gallup's article of advice to young people, "You Can't Get Ahead Today Unless You Read." *Ladies' Home Journal*. 77: 44, 145-146. Aug. 1960.

10. James E. Bryan, "The Christmas Holiday Jam: Student Use of a Metropolitan Library." A.L.A. *Bulletin*. 55: 526-530. June 1961.

11. See *The Public Library Plans for the Teen-Age*. op. cit. p. 21.

12. Edwin Castagna, "Library Services to Youth." *Library Journal*. 85: 3611-3614. Oct. 15, 1960.

13. For a "biography" of a young adult librarian, see Nancy H. Lynch, "By Hook or by Crook." *Mademoiselle*. 41: 142-45, 170-02. May 1955.

14. Mary A. Backer, "An Ounce of Prevention." *Wilson Library Bulletin*. 35: 308-311. Dec. 1960.

15. Enoch Pratt Free Library. *Work with Young Adults*. 14 p. mimeo. 1958. p. 10, 14.

16. For a general overview see Margaret A. Edwards, "The Rise of Teen-Age Reading." *Saturday Review*. 37: 88-89, 95. Nov. 13, 1954. Also New York Public Library's *Branch Library Book News*, each January, lists about 1,500 recent titles judged to have special appeal to teen-agers. These are updated by the valuable A.L.A. magazine *Top of the News* (4 issues a year, \$1.25), which carries many Y.A. lists and articles.

17. Much attention has been focused on how to introduce books and readers. A good source of ideas is the Louisiana State University Library School's *Proceedings* [of a Conference on] *Library Service for Young Adults by Interested Librarians*. 84 p. 1958. Baton Rouge. Also Margaret A. Edwards. "It All Started with Prometheus." *California Librarian*. 21: 93-96, 112-15. Apr. 1960. Also Robert H. Dumas. "You Toke About the Book . . ." *Wilson Library Bulletin*. 36: 139-140. Oct. 1961. Also Virginia Tozier, ed., *The Reading of Youth*. (*Frontiers of Librarianship*, no. 3) 28 p. 1960. Syracuse University Press. Also *Work with Young Adults in the Enoch Pratt Free Library*. 14 p. 1958. An excellent manual of routines, techniques and detailed practical suggestions.

18. Such student reviews are published regularly in several public libraries, such as *Long Tales Cut Short*, Evansville; *You're the Critic*, Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore. See Margaret A. Edwards. "In the Opinion of Teenagers." *Top of the News*. 18: 57-60. Dec. 1961.

19. Among numerous good books on counseling: Jane Warters. *High School Personnel Work Today*. 2nd ed. 358 p. 1956. McGraw-Hill. Also American School Counselor Association and American Association of School Librarians. *Librarians and Counselors Work Together for an Effective Program in the School*. 8 p. 1960. A.L.A.

20. See "Films for Young People." In Louisiana State University Library School. *Proceedings* [of a Conference on] *Library Service for Young Adults by Interested Librarians*. 84 p. 1958. Baton Rouge. p. 72-75. Lists and annotates 31 films in 6 subject areas.

21. See p. 6 of U.S. Office of Education. *Progress of Public Education in the United States of America: 1958-59*. 29 p. 1959. GPO.

22. See p. 1 of U.S. Bureau of Labor Standards. *After Teen-Agers Quit School: Seven Community Programs Help Would-Be Workers*. (Bulletin no. 150.) 30 p. 1951.

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CHAPTER 21

Administration of Children's Services

Service to children constitutes one of the major contributions of the public library in America. It was almost fifty years after the public library movement started in mid-nineteenth century before children's service became accepted and recognized by most libraries. It has flourished mightily since then, almost to the point of overshadowing service to adults, and now faces problems that arise from the remarkable growth of its own offspring, the school library. The literature of children's librarianship is voluminous and this one chapter must of necessity be selective. Main aspects of services for children and their management, some long-term trends and current problems will be considered briefly.

HISTORY

Approximately between 1890 and 1900, public librarians discovered that elementary school children wanted and needed books and library service. The ramifications of that discovery are still being felt and explored. At first it led to such obvious and necessary developments as separate rooms in public library buildings and special training for children's librarians. School libraries themselves developed in large part out of the desire of public librarians to bring books to children. The tremendous growth of children's literature in the last half century has in part been the result and in part a contributing cause of the rise of public library service to children. We noted in Chapter 1 the part played by the book trade and by Fred Melcher in this growth. Almost every device and instrument of public library service has been utilized for children, and some have been specially developed for this purpose. The overriding facts are (a) that books are essential in the education of children, as a substitute for and often better than real life experience; and (b) that children enjoy and welcome books, as witness the fact that over half of the total American public library circulation is now of juvenile books.

A large number of dedicated children's librarians, usually women, of great intelligence, common sense and passionate conviction as to the worth of books, to children especially, early developed some of the cardinal principles of children's library service which are still observed.¹ In fact some of these major principles have been taken over in education generally, e.g., that children need to be treated as individuals and recognized as such, that reading will be most effective when made attractive and voluntary and that children should be free to read at their own pace and level and in their own direction of interest. The magnificent fabric of public library service to children has been the result almost entirely of the work of the children's librarians and not of the public library administrators, most of whom have been men and few of whom have ever done children's work or even been greatly interested in it.

ORGANIZATION

As a result of overhead administrative disinterest the pattern of organization of children's work within the public library has not been a clear and consistent one. In some cases the children's librarian was a sufficiently strong personality to secure a particularly favorable place in the library's organizational structure, or to develop the role of children's librarian far beyond what others could do. Children's service developed proportionately more in the large cities than in small ones. In the present book, organization has been discussed in terms of split-off in function as libraries increase in size. When libraries have staffs of only three or four, including a trained head, he is the one who generally gives special attention to children. With six or seven on the staff, and with the A. L. A. standard of one-third professional, i.e., when the head and one assistant are professionally trained, the latter is generally assigned to attend to children's service, even though she must give some time to other work. She becomes "the children's librarian." The others have to take a hand, and in-service instruction in children's books and service becomes one of the major jobs of the children's librarian. In other words, typically the first specialization has been children's work. In most libraries of under 15,000 population the children's work is handled from the one circulation desk, and suffers from having all the staff undertake to give advice on children's books. A three-part major principle of managing children's service is (a) to assign the best-qualified person to be responsible for it; (b) to keep this person constantly developing her knowledge of children's books and understanding of children and how to serve them; and (c) to reduce the random attempts to serve children by other staff members who are less qualified.

As the number, size and importance of branch libraries increased, they usually included provision for service to children; the main problem was

how to relate the branch children's librarians to the person in charge of the children's room at the central library, because usually she was thought of as in general charge of children's work throughout the library. The most frequent answer has been to make the branch children's librarian administratively responsible to the branch librarian and to give the chief children's librarian some degree of technical supervision over the work done with children in the branches. The chief children's librarian is thus a line officer with regard to the central library children's room and possibly the central library services to grade schools, and a staff officer with regard to the branches in advising them on the selection of children's books, in arranging in-service training for children's librarians, in planning and promoting children's library programs and activities, etc. In most libraries large enough to have branches, the pattern of organization does not emphasize the unity and integration of children's work. This may be inevitable, but at least the results can be improved (a) by clearly assigning to the chief children's librarian the responsibility to advise the library administrator on the overall development of children's work in the system; and (b) by seeing that as time passes the head of children's work gives more and more leadership to all the aspects of children's work,² including that at each branch.

The Children's Librarian's Job

Whether in large or small libraries, whoever has charge of service to children has to break down his job into the respective parts, and see that (a) each part is effectively assigned; and (b) each person is supervised, encouraged and developed, and his work and knowledge improved. Such components include policies and budgets; staffing, training and supervising; methods for handling the work; selecting and placing the books; improving individual guidance to all who come; always improving reference service; helping parents; group instruction in use of books and libraries; making exhibits and lists; storytelling; clubs, contests, vacation and other projects to extend service; promotion and cooperation through outside contacts; statistics and reporting. This formidable and absorbing range of duties makes children's work so resultful.

Staffing

For years good children's librarians have been hard to get and hard to keep, i.e., those who know children's literature, child psychology, the school curriculum and teaching methods. Dedicated persons trained in these fields naturally give better satisfaction in this exacting work than do any others. In seeking their services, public libraries are in competition with the even greater need for school librarians, whose salaries are appreciably higher and

whose work year is shorter. School librarians are usually required to have the same academic preparation as teachers, while this is desirable but not necessary for children's librarians. But many young people considering librarianship as a career find it easy to get the necessary credits in education and thus qualify for employment in two main types of libraries, with the big pull toward school librarianship.

A final factor which holds down recruitment and retention is the lack of promotional opportunities. Every large library should provide at least a few advanced positions where children's librarians can continue their special interests. It is unusual for the branch children's librarian to be promoted to be the branch librarian and even less frequent for a children's librarian to become head librarian. This situation has to be rectified if children's librarians are to be kept, even if they can be recruited. Some libraries are now paying children's librarians more than others of the same grade in recognition of this situation.

There are many cases where the services of one trained children's librarian could be shared by two or three small libraries, when each of them could not afford a full-time trained children's worker. Certainly any branch or separate library lending 75,000 or more books a year needs a professional children's librarian. But the long-term shortage of children's librarians compels resort to persons who may have had experience with children, as in teaching or camp work or as parents, and who have the requisite personality traits. If wisely selected and given appropriate training in children's books and their values, these people may become reasonably proficient. Under such circumstances it is all the more necessary to pay a large enough salary to secure as director of children's work a person able to plan, organize, coordinate and supervise all the children's workers in the system. She should be consulted in the choice of all persons assigned to children's work and she should direct their in-service training.

Book Selecting

Knowledge and skill in selecting and servicing children's books and magazines, and now even films and records, are basic to this work, though there is the hard core of standard titles time-tested and sure to be enjoyed.² Even these appear in ever new and different editions. The great problem is the rapid increase in number and variety of current titles, many of great value for their own sake and for their usefulness in the school curriculum. Selection for purchase and knowledgeable recommendations to readers require critical appreciation of what is desirable. There are numerous good sources of information on new children's books,⁴ but those who serve children need to read the books themselves and to develop their own standards. Book evaluation meetings help in selecting new books, and provide valuable in-service training too. Formulation and periodic review of a statement of

children's book selection principles has training value beyond its own purpose,⁵ for it raises knotty questions as to textbooks, condensations of classics, comics, romances, etc.

Few libraries have a collection of children's books as good as it should be. The number of good children's books increases continually as do their prices; the absorptive capacity of children for books is never saturated, and the rate of wearout and outdatedness of children's books is high. Films, records, slides, filmstrips, maps and pictures ought also to be available. Reference books are even more imperative, ever higher in price and brought up-to-date ever more frequently. Instead of listening to agents it is well to schedule replacement purchases of the two best young people's encyclopedias, and to buy by plan rather than pressure. Replacement of older titles has to be continuous, absorbing from 10 per cent to 20 per cent of book funds. Readers and primers for young children are now increasingly recognized as desirable, and so are picture books beloved by children too young to read at all. Children's books get hard wear, and children are influenced by their attractiveness. Prebinding, picture covers and a policy of prompt and regular rebinding of children's books are profitable investments, influenced by new trends in publishers' special library binding and the net price children's book.

There are enough differences between the use of adult books and of children's books so that major decisions or changes contemplated by catalogers should have the advice of the head children's librarian. Broader rather than narrower classification and sometimes different classification than the adult titles on the same subject are often desirable. Reader interest classification is often used, at least in part, if only to save staff members from having repeatedly to find another horse story for young readers. Descriptive cataloging details need to be minimized with shorter, simpler and some different subject headings. Indicating the school grade level for which books are considered most nearly appropriate helps in selecting books for an individual child. But such labeling may result in an unwillingness of children to explore books of a higher grade level and in their embarrassment and refusal to use books below their present grade. Furthermore, the higher the grade level, the more difficult it is to assign each book to one grade only. A reasonable solution is to use only broad groupings, such as primary, intermediate and upper grades, and to use a well-concealed code.

Services and Activity Programs

The library's traditional overhead pattern is that of a department of elementary school children with perhaps a young adult section for high school students, and an adult department for all others. A few libraries are trying a new pattern: a children's department for those up to sixth grade, a young adult department for those in grades seven to twelve (that is, junior and

senior high schools), and an adult department for all others.* Other libraries have reported use of a borrower's card identical for children and for adults, and not changed when a child graduates from elementary school. This entitles children to use adult books and services⁷ and is in line with increasing flexibility to meet individual preferences.

Individual Guidance

Given access to a collection of books of even reasonable adequacy, children will use it more heavily than will any other group of readers. They go through certain well-defined stages of growth and development, and corresponding phases of reading interests. Trained and experienced professional librarians consider it essential to be informed on children's literature, types of motivation and methods of personal guidance. As a result they can match an appropriate book to a particular child's needs, and predict his success and satisfaction in any particular reading experience, in a far higher per cent of cases than adult service librarians can do with their patrons.

Most reading guidance for children is given directly, in answer to the flood of queries for books on particular subjects, or for books just like the one being returned, or simply for a "good" book. Indirect methods range from booklists and exhibits to summer reading clubs and book talks before school classes or other groups.⁸ Summer reading clubs are sometimes used in ways which put a premium on the number of books read; cases are reported of an average of over three per day.⁹ Such group and competitive projects would probably do better to emphasize breadth of reading and appreciation of what is read, rather than sheer quantity. But, as this topic illustrates, children's library work is almost devoid of systematic research. Its planning is based on extensive experience though it lends itself well to scientific studies.

Reference Service

The burgeoning of reference service for children stems largely from the enrichment of the elementary school curriculum, the use of projects as assignments which require independent study and thinking, the increase and greater variety of substantial out-of-school interests, and the greater availability of more good juvenile nonfiction books than ever. Evidently it stems also from teaching children the use of books and libraries as early as the first grade, where they are shown how to care for a book. Schools and public libraries alike, in many cities, teach elementary school children the organization and use of common reference books, the school library and public library children's room, the card catalog, periodical indexes, etc., as discussed in Chapter 30. A perennial universal complaint of librarians at each academic level is that someone should have taught the students

these things earlier. Such instruction *needs* to recur at each main stage, so as to be useful and meaningful to the students at that stage of their development, and *not* for the next stage or for the rest of their lives. It also greatly stimulates reference use of books by readers.

The currently debated school-library public-library complex discussed in the next chapter has in some libraries taken the edge off librarians' zeal to help children on the reference questions which mean so much to them. Chapter 18, on reference service, has suggestions on this problem, but three facts stand out: (a) reference help is one of the public library's prime obligations to children; (b) it needs more administrative attention, especially money for more reference materials and reference staff; and (c) preparation for it has to be planned and continuously active to outbalance the turnover and other shortcomings of non-library-school-trained persons attempting to give reference service.

Story Hours

The best-known device to stimulate children to read and to explore the world of books is the story hour, usually held once a week and justly popular with nearly every child up to the fifth grade. Some libraries offer story-hour programs on television and radio, and also as a part of staff members' visits to school classrooms. Some libraries are finding a ready reception for preschool story hours for children from age three to five. Upper-grade children are more interested in craft clubs, in creative writing, dramatic and art experiences, in student library assistant groups and in other participation programs.¹⁰

Such activities are examples of the dynamic drive to open up new areas and types of service to ever more groups of patrons. As library service to children becomes better developed and understood, children's librarians seek to work with children too young to be in school and with school-age children in their out-of-school time. Service to adults, by children's librarians, is another such area. Years ago, Clarence Sumner pioneered in establishing a Mother's Room in the Youngstown (Ohio) Public Library, but only in recent years have collections of adult books and related services for parents, such as advice on books to buy for children, become a regular activity.¹¹ Servicing children's books for teacher use is of long standing in children's departments of public libraries, but books on teaching are part of the services to adults and involve the use of adult reference tools, e.g., the *Education Index*. In some libraries, scout leaders, Sunday-school teachers and other adults who work with children find that both the adult and juvenile materials they need have been brought together in the children's room. In other cases the librarians are reluctant to detach any segment of the adult collection, because it is best serviced by the staff which specializes in adult informational tools and materials. Increased emphasis is now given

to exceptional children, especially the gifted; extra-reading is one of the most easily managed and resultful enrichments and encouragements for talented children. Books and library service can be of great value in all these categories, but as yet few such areas of service have been carefully studied or substantially developed.

SOME CURRENT PROBLEMS AND LONG-TERM TRENDS

Children's library service has been so rewarding that any new library or branch or system will promptly establish an effective program of children's service. Adults (meaning all those fifteen years of age or over) were about 70 per cent of the total estimated population in 1956, and children (from five to fourteen years of age) were 20 per cent. But children who were registered patrons of public libraries constituted 52 per cent of the total population of that age group living in areas served by libraries, while adults who were registered with their local public libraries were only 22 per cent of that age group.¹² And, though children were only 39 per cent of the total registration of public libraries in 1956, children's books now account for over half of their total circulation, compared with 33 per cent in 1939.¹³

All librarians hail the success of children's work. Public library service to adults is crying for better attention and promotion, but this need not mean that children's work should get less. Children's service is now concerned with at least four main problem issues, viz., the theory of the library habit, the rise of the school library, the appeal of the mass media to children and the effect of long-term trends in child education and psychology.

The Theory of the Library Habit

Librarians have long held the theory that, if children are attracted to the public library early and induced to use it regularly, they will continue to use the library when they become adults, at least more so than they would otherwise, by virtue of having formed the habit.¹⁴ This theory has been used for fifty years to justify children's library service, on the ground that the time and money so invested in children's library work would be repaid years later by increased adult use. There is no evidence in support of this theory, and some which discredits it; and an alternative theory can be proposed which makes fewer assumptions.

If the library habit theory were valid, it should have produced greater results in fifty years; it should have resulted in more than general good will of the adult public for its library—there should be twice as much adult reading from library materials. But adult registration and adult use of public libraries are still relatively limited, and more of adult reading needs

are being met by enormous sales of paperbacks and magazines. Adult use seems to be more nearly a result of formal education and of economic conditions than of early exposure to books and libraries. It is well known that public library use is at its lowest point, in the case of most people, in the late teens and early twenties, just after they have left school and just after their exposure to books and libraries. With somewhat the same reasoning, the study of Latin was long defended because of the alleged transfer value of the mental discipline so involved. But habits are not likely to be continued unless they fill real needs and bring continued success. Young people leaving school and entering the adult world have needs which for the most part, so they think, require help from sources other than books, unlike younger children, whose needs can in large part be met by books. The actual needs of any given age group, and the degree of success with which books and libraries meet those needs, will be more influential in determining its use of the public library than will previous exposure to books and libraries. In one study it was found that high school students' use of libraries did not vary with whether they had had good library service in elementary schools, but that their present use of libraries was significantly greater among those motivated by the college preparatory curriculum than in the case of the others.¹⁵ And most of the studies of reading by college students show that they read more than older adults but less than children.¹⁶

While it is always possible that better techniques of library service to children will be more successful in producing life-long library patrons, it is also possible that an alternative theory is more nearly valid—that any group of potential readers will use books and libraries to the extent to which those services are available to them, are brought to their attention and are performed so as to meet their present major life needs and wants effectively. It follows that library service should be available to every major group of potential patrons for its own sake and for what it will do and mean for them in their present stage of development. Public library service to children is good for its own sake, and public library service to adults had better be developed in the light of successful approaches to major adult life needs.

The Challenge of the School Library

This theory of the library habit led public libraries early in this century to an extensive development of service to schools. At that time this was a positive good. But through the years the more progressive schools have recognized the value of school library service, have established their own libraries and have taken over the functions which the local public library had been attempting to cover in the school. School progress and changes in teaching methods, which favored the use of multiple sources, combined to make school library service an ever larger and more expensive portion of

the total service given by the public library until it outbalanced and thwarted other services. In the last couple of decades, in city after city, the public library has withdrawn from providing school library service on its own. Generally this was in the form of classroom groups of circulating books; seldom did it give the increasingly necessary reference service called for by the teachers. The obvious suggestion of joint financing of the service by both schools and libraries has been tried repeatedly, but this raises administrative, budgetary and even political difficulties. In their increasing need for the school library as a learning laboratory, the schools have preferred to establish their own libraries if they are going to have to pay even as much as half the total cost. From the viewpoint of individual service to pupils and teachers as well as administratively, the best results are likely to be achieved by school libraries administered and financed by the school system, and completely integrated into the structure and functioning of the school itself.¹⁷ Today the overwhelming majority of school libraries are so organized.¹⁸ Other aspects of this public-library school-library relationship, as affecting children's library service, are discussed in Chapter 22.

Children and the Mass Media

The school library and the public library, in its service to children, accept the same basic standards and criteria, and work with essentially the same techniques and materials. In direct competition are the mass media with their tremendous appeal, the comics, television, radio, the motion pictures, the popular magazines, which are commercial enterprises, operated for profit, with enormous financial resources on which to draw, and activated by keen financial and commercial rivalries. Their techniques and methods usually have no necessary connection with nor do they often claim to serve the educational or character-building activities of children. It is not that all reading of hard-cover books by children is good and worthwhile, or that none of the mass media ever have anything worthwhile for children. Rather it is that typically the public library serves the long-range values of children's reading without regard to immediate financial return, while the mass media normally cater to the entertainment of children so as to secure their dollars¹⁹ or to sell advertising.

It is possible, however, for a library not only to grow and to flourish in the face of the appeal to children of the mass media, but also to use the mass media for its own ends. Thus radio and television programs have been arranged by many libraries, and with good results; and library use of a good book is often stimulated by local showing of the motion picture made from it, especially when promoted by library advertising of the fact. Technical progress and aggressive advertising have forced libraries to compete with these strong rivals for the time and attention of children in out-of-school hours. Improving the appearance of children's rooms and children's books,

simplifying registration and circulation procedures are only forerunners to library promotion that will attract more children as patrons, and assure them of really interesting but high-quality reading.

There are periodic campaigns to raise the level of content and to eliminate objectionable features in the mass media, especially comics and television. Children's librarians would be well-advised to consider before they participate in such well-meant but controversial enterprises. But they can introduce a positive note and attempt to get more attention given to the availability of good books in or out of libraries, to the public discussion of what constitutes good reading and of how it can be provided all children, and to those movies and TV programs which are constructive and free from objectionable elements. There is no attempt implied here to gloss over the defects of the mass media in their impact on children, and the worst offenses are indeed shocking. We do not know how or to what extent children make a reasonable adjustment to the mass media over a period of years; but libraries assume that constructive films and TV programs which they put on will be beneficial. As yet there is no substantial body of evidence that juvenile delinquency is directly caused by exposure to crime comics or violence-filled movies or television programs. Logic and experience would suggest that good influences probably make for good and bad influences make for evil. Conscientious librarians try to keep informed on current developments and thinking in this controversial area.²⁰

The Trend in Education and Psychology

The present long-term emphasis by our society on research in education and child psychology augurs well for libraries, and the planning by children's librarians needs to take note of the educational changes being made. Current literature on the teaching of reading has never been so stimulating; studies, easily available, discuss main trends. Among them are the widespread definite attempts to improve teaching methods, to tighten up on the typical curriculum, to require more home study, to do better by gifted children, to give renewed attention to the humanities despite the furor over science, to improve the teaching and habit of reading,²¹ to encourage independent reading, and, by using multiple sources instead of a single text, to teach ethics and character building without crossing over into religion and theology. These are only a few current top-priority subjects.

The children's librarian needs to know about developments in the schools, in the curriculum, in teaching methods and in what current research and thinking say about normal child development. Every children's librarian is in effect an amateur child psychologist, and sustained interest in the schools and in child development makes her work more effective. If children's librarians are not to become simply distributors of books as physical objects, they need to know of the ways in which educators and

psychologists are utilizing books and library services to secure desired results.

The future of public library service to children lies not in the mass distribution of books, but in the exploitation of its unique aspects—the voluntary nature of each child's reading, the unquestioning acceptance of each child at his present level of growth, the ready availability of many different titles and forms of print and of nonprint materials, the ability to give richer and more complete reference service to all. The crucial element is a skilled and imaginative librarian to test and establish how books and library service can help normal children, the gifted and the leaders, as well as juvenile delinquents, those in need of remedial reading, the children who suffer from psychological strains, and the many other problem categories in which children find themselves, and in which educators need to help them.²²

FOOTNOTES AND SPECIAL MATERIAL

1. Frances L. Spain, ed. *Reading Without Boundaries, Essays Presented to Anna Carroll Moore on . . . the Fiftieth Anniversary of Service to Children at the New York Public Library*. p. 531-638. 1956. N.Y. Public Library. Describes early developments in work with children and the contributions of one of the leaders. Also Lionel R. McColvin. *Libraries for Children*. 183 p. 1961. Phoenix House, London; sold by Bowker, N.Y. \$4. An overview of current British practice as interpreted by an administrative leader with lifelong interest in children's work.

2. Harry N. Peterson. "Administration of Children's Library Services." *A.L.A. Bulletin*. 53: 293-296. April 1959. Includes job description for position of Coordinator of Children's Service in the D.C. Public Library. Also Mary R. Lucas. *Organization and Administration of Library Service to Children*. 107 p. 1941. A.L.A. A pioneer study but based only on situations in 12 cities of over 200,000 population.

3. Several good books describe and evaluate the standard titles of children's literature, e.g., Bess P. Adams. *About Books and Children, Historical Survey of Children's Literature*. 573 p. 1953. Holt.

4. See especially the *Bulletin of the Center for Children's Books*, of the University of Chicago, described by Zena Bailey. "The Center for Children's Books." *A.L.A. Bulletin*. 54: 681-83. September 1960.

5. For example, *Selection Policy for Children's Books for the Buffalo Public Library*. 7 p. 1952.

6. See Helen E. Wessells. "The Forgotten Age Group." *A.L.A. Bulletin*. 53: 827-830+. Nov. 1959. Also Helen R. Simiff. "A New Junior High Room." *A.L.A. Bulletin*. 54: 152-153. Feb. 1960. Also Learned T. Bulman. "More on Services to Youth." *A.L.A. Bulletin*. 54: 261. April 1960.

7. Bulman, *ibid.* Also Glenn Mallison. "Permanent Registration of Library Patron." *Library Journal*. 84: 3816. Dec. 15, 1959.

8. Sybil V. Jacobsen. *Make Friends with Books: A Collection of Book Week and Year-Round Articles for Teachers, Librarians, Booksellers, Authors, Parents, Young Readers*. 125 p. 1949. Children's Book Council. N.Y. Valuable compilation of experience and suggestions for publicizing children's books. Also Dorothy L. McFadden. *How to Run a Book Fair*. 35 p. 1956. Children's Book Council, N.Y. Probably the single best source. See also Joanna Tucker. *Publicity Manual for the Children's Department of*

a Public Library. 64 p. 1951. Typed thesis available for borrowing from Carnegie Institute of Technology Library, Pittsburgh.

9. See Huntington (West Virginia) Public Library. *The Fortnighter*. Oct. 20, 1959. par. 136.

10. Ellin F. Peterson. "The Pre-School Hour." *Top of the News*. 18: 47-51. Dec. 1961. Also Bernice Bruner. "Creative Activities in a Public Library Children's Room." *Illinois Libraries*. 40: 649-654. Sept. 1958. Frances Clarke Sayers describes storytelling, book talks and other such activities for children in the New York Public Library in her article "The Reading Program in the Children's Department." p. 121-33 of Frances Henno, et al., eds. *Youth, Communication and Libraries*. 1949. A.L.A.

11. For example, see Association for Childhood Education International. *Children's Books for \$1.25 or Less*. (Bulletin no. 36; rev. 1959, 38 p.) Lists and annotates about 800 titles, in 16 subject groups. Also Elsie S. MacDonald "Advisory Work with Parents" (in the District of Columbia Public Library). *A.L.A. Bulletin*. 53: 299-300. April 1959. The Youngstown project was discontinued as ineffective and expensive.

12. Public Library registration figures for 1956 were projected to include those reporting libraries which had not supplied these data to the U.S. Office of Education. Then the percentage of the total population served by all reporting libraries (as of the 1950 U.S. population) was found; and this figure (72%) was multiplied in accordance with the Census Bureau estimates of 1956 population by age groups. The library registration figures by age groups were then divided by the estimates of population served, by the same age groups, with the results reported. See Rose Vainstein. *Statistics of Public Libraries: 1955-56*. (Chapter 5 of Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1954-56, 1959.) U.S. Office of Education. p. 31-32 and 5-6. Also U.S. Bureau of the Census. *Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1957*. (GPO. 1957.) p. 24.

13. Vainstein, *ibid*. p. 25. Also the Index of American Public Library Circulation, in various current issues of the *A.L.A. Bulletin*.

14. For example, "... the child who becomes a confirmed library user, of course, will be numbered among the adult library users of the future." See p. 6 ff. of Aubrey F. Andrews. "What an Administrator Expects of the Young People's and Children's Departments." In *Avenues and Vistas for Bringing Library Materials to Children and Young People; Proceedings of the Section on Public Library Administration, 13th Annual Institute of Government, 1948*. (Report no. 100.) 1949. University of Washington Bureau of Governmental Research and Services. p. 6-11.

15. Herbert Goldhor. "Report of a Survey of High School Students' Use of Libraries." *Teachers College Journal*. 29: 22-24. Nov. 1957.

16. Lester Asheim. "A Survey of Recent Research." In Jacob M. Price, ed. *Reading for Life: Developing the College Student's Life-Time Reading Interest*. 271 p. 1959. University of Michigan Press. p. 7 ff.

17. Mary S. Gaver. "Effectiveness of Centralized School Library Service in Elementary Schools" (Phase 1). *Library Quarterly*. 31: 245-256. July 1, 1961. On 6 out of 8 measures, school libraries were superior to classroom sets and central collections.

18. Nora E. Beust and Emery M. Foster. *Statistics of Public School Libraries: 1953-54*. (Chapter 6 of the Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1952-54) 1957. U. S. Office of Education. p. 16-17, 21.

19. It was estimated in 1954 that a billion comic books a year were sold, at a total price of \$100,000,000 or ... "four times as much as the book-purchasing budgets of all public libraries." *Publishers' Weekly*, editorial. 165: 1906. May 1, 1954.

20. Frederic Wertham. *Seduction of the Innocent*. 2nd ed. 400 p. 1954. Rinehart. The most strongly worded book on the effects of comic books. Also Josette Frank. *Comics, Radio, Movies and Children*. 32 p. 1949. (Public Affairs Pamphlet no. 148.) A more restrained review.

21. See for example James Cass, ed. *Books in the Schools*. 65 p. 1961. American Book Publishers Council. In addition there are more and better books for teachers on the effective teaching of reading and for parents, such as Ruth Strang. *Helping Your Child Improve His Reading*. 1962. Dutton. \$4.50. A perceptive authority emphasizes attitudes, and clarifies the disputed methods of learning to read words.

22. For a good short introduction to the psychology of children's reading, see Bernard Berelson. "Communication and Youth." In Frances Henne, et al., eds. *Youth, Communications, and Libraries*. 1949. A.L.A. p. 14-30. On the value and use of books and library service to normal children, see Alice R. Brooks. "Developmental Value in Books." p. 49-61 of the same book by Henne. Also Robert J. Havighurst, "Literature and the Developing Child." *ILA Record* (Illinois Library Association). 7: 13-17. September 1953. For suggestions on the use of books and library service for emotionally disturbed children, see Katherine G. Keneally. "Therapeutic Value of Books." p. 69-77 of Henne. *op. cit.* Marcell Saller. "The Librarian Meets the Unexpected." *Illinois Libraries*. 35: 338-342. Oct. 1953. Also the 3-part series of articles, "The Furious Children and the Library." *Top of the News*. v. 16. March 1960. p. 12-15; May 1960, p. 24-30; Oct. 1960, p. 48-63.

CHAPTER 22

Administration of Work with Schools

One of America's noteworthy achievements is its educational system, available to all the children of all the people. From nursery schools through post-collegiate professional and graduate schools, it constitutes one of the greatest and most successful attempts to diffuse knowledge among the whole population. Because of its size and its staggering task, parts of it are always subject to criticism and improvement. Because public libraries too belong to the general educational system, it is natural and desirable that they should cooperate and coordinate with the schools, especially at the elementary and secondary levels. This relationship has not always been as happy or as fruitful and effective as it should be. Some basic relationships between public libraries and public schools will be discussed first, then some of the specific aspects of public library services to public and other schools.

DESIRABLE PUBLIC LIBRARY-PUBLIC SCHOOL RELATIONSHIPS

Three basic principles underlie public library-public school relationships, if children are to benefit. If these principles are not understood and accepted by both parties the relationship is likely to be unsatisfactory to one or the other, and less effective than it might be.¹

The first principle is that every school should have its own school library, controlled and financed by the school system.² Books and library service are important for children, as an integral part of the teaching resources and educational program of every high and grade school. Modern methods of teaching emphasize multiple sources of information and the encouragement of independent thinking, weaving the use of library materials into every possible unit of teaching. The school librarian should be qualified by experience and education, both as a librarian and as a teacher, to know the teacher's point of view, to have a teacher's status in the school, to be a part of the teaching team, and specifically to put library materials to work in

each teacher's class assignments. For over twenty years an intensive drive has been under way for elementary school libraries, administered and supported by the school and independent of the public library. This repeats the pattern followed by the high schools; most high schools today have their own school library, largely because of the requirements of the regional accrediting associations and the state departments of education.³

The second main principle is that the public library should seek to encourage the development and improvement of these individual school libraries, and to cooperate with them. It was a commendable and desirable thing, forty or fifty years ago, when public libraries extended their services to the schools.⁴ But since then school officials have recognized the great need for having their own school libraries, and it is no longer desirable or practical for the public library to manage or finance them. Many school librarians claim, with some justification, that continuance of public library service to schools, i.e., branches or classroom collections, has held back the development of school libraries.⁵

Public library relationships to schools could range from the one extreme of public library operation of school libraries, with all expenses paid by the school system, to the other extreme of complete and total separation of and no communication between the two library systems. Neither extreme is actually to be found, nor would either be desirable. The four arrangements most frequently found are (1) the operation of school libraries by the public library with a sharing of expenses; (2) the operation by the public library of branch libraries in school buildings; (3) the placing of classroom collections (in grade schools particularly), financed and deposited by the public library; and (4) the informal cooperation and the many types of services rendered by public libraries to schools which have libraries of their own. These four arrangements will be discussed later in this chapter. The single most important way in which the public library can help the local school libraries in cities having more than eight or ten schools is to press for the appointment of a well-qualified city school library supervisor.⁶

The third main principle is that, to whatever extent the school system is unable or unwilling to provide adequate library service to its own students, then the public library has the obligation to serve the pupils as fully as it can. In cities which have school libraries the public library continues to be called on for materials which no individual school library can supply, or because the public library has additional copies, or the school closes before the pupils have enough chance to use the library. The public library has a responsibility to provide at least some degree of service for every large group of potential patrons in its service area, and from a fourth to a third of the local population is in school. But that responsibility is reduced by the extent to which any main part of the provision of library service to a segment of the community is assumed by others (e.g., by a special library, a college

library or a school library). The school system is the appropriate agency to provide library service and of a high order to its own students.

The Relative Function of School vs. Public Libraries

The similarities and differences in objectives, scope, functions and materials for children and young people, between public libraries and school libraries, comprise a complex subject which is still confused in the minds of librarians and the general public. Part of this confusion is a natural result of the projection and promotion by the public libraries of their own services into the schools, during the last half century, and the fact that the school libraries have been an outgrowth of those services. It has been compounded by those public librarians who oppose the creation of school libraries, and by those who feel that emphasizing work for children, especially school children, is a deterrent to the development of adult services. Some school librarians too, in their desire to see adequate school libraries established, have taken the extreme position, "If a community can afford or elects to have only one type of service, the elementary-school library service should be the choice (in schools of over 200 pupils), since the objectives of elementary education can be fully achieved only when the school has its own library, and since the library in the school reaches all the children."⁷ The following are some of the basic and realistic factors in the situation.

1. The materials and services in school libraries are very similar to those in well-managed children's departments in public libraries, but they serve different functions.⁸ While both include fiction and informational books, the collection in the school library justifiably reflects the curriculum subjects; in the children's department it is broader and emphasizes out-of-school interests rather than classroom subjects, though well-financed school libraries can afford a greater number of books per pupil and therefore a wider range. In both school and public libraries, the same high type of trained librarians should be available; increasingly the school librarians are required to have training and experience in teaching methods and acquaintance with the curriculum. The children's librarians put greater stress on knowing children's books and fitting them to the individual child. But as Henne notes⁷ the school librarian is closer to the child and *should* be able to understand him better. And Gaver found that a complete school library served children better than did classroom sets or central collections.⁹ But children who use both their school and their public libraries (a usual and highly desirable situation) almost always feel that their use of the public library is freer, that they find a greater variety of material and that they are more on their own than in the school library.

2. The size of the community and the number of schools and of public library branches constitute a major factor often overlooked. The larger the city the more impossible it becomes, without great cost, for any or every school library to have the variety of materials and staff which a good central or branch public library is justified in having. Even when a school library is well enough supported to have

a good book collection—and that is still the exception rather than the rule—the disparity in total resources will exist in most communities. Among these are the pictures, pamphlets, maps, back files of magazines, older books and much other reference material. On the other hand a good school library can achieve higher densities of use than even a good public library, for close availability of books and services is a key factor in their use, and no less so in the case of children than adults. As noted later, the per-capita cost of school library service is usually more than the per-capita support of public libraries; we have no comparative costs per unit of use.

3. The costs and administrative problems of keeping school libraries open longer hours than those of the classrooms make such a development unlikely as a common practice in the foreseeable future. Janitorial, heating, lighting and building discipline costs and weekly work schedules are all complicated by the increasing proportion of children who come to school and go home by bus. All this time (in the late afternoons, in the evenings, on Saturdays and holidays and in the summers) when schools are closed, the public library and most branches are open and busy, with more materials and with trained staffs as able as those in the school libraries. All these considerations are accentuated in considering high school students, who need and use adult books and services in increasing volume and with increasing intensiveness.

The answer to the problem appears to be the actual situation found in almost every community—boys and girls are busily using both their school libraries and their public libraries at the same time. When good school libraries are established in a community, public librarians have discovered that their own services to children and teen-agers do not diminish but increase. The indications are that school library use and public library use are mutually stimulating. Arlington County, Va., with a population of 165,000, has one of the most highly developed public school and school library systems in the country; each school from grades 1-12 has a trained librarian, an active P. T. A. promotes library use and gives volunteer help, and there is competent, effective school library supervision. But the busy central public library and six branches in fiscal 1960 lent 338,349 children's books and 431,147 adult books, of which a large proportion were borrowed by high school students (more than 50 per cent of adult circulation was non-fiction), while in the school year 1960-61 the public grade school libraries lent 758,943 books and the high school libraries 204,272; total 963,215 school library books, a total of 1,732,711 from both systems, or 10½ books per capita.¹⁰ This is one of the reasons why Arlington is one of the most highly desirable residence areas in the United States.

The conviction has been strengthened in recent years that reading is the key to the whole educational process, that it helps to develop ability to think and encourages individual effort and purpose. The two systems of libraries should work together for the good of the students they both serve. The library in the school should be considered as a working laboratory, providing materials for use at the time they are needed inside the school. The

public library serves students outside school hours, and more than 60 per cent of the patronage of many libraries is from grade and high school students. School libraries should be encouraged to handle ever more of the needs of their students, and public libraries will always be needed to supplement them.¹¹ Public libraries should not do less for school children but more for the adults who typically have no other system of libraries to use.

Public Library Operation of School Libraries by Contract

Of the four main types of relationships between public libraries and schools, enumerated above, two are not recommended. One of these is the operation of school libraries by the public library, on the basis of a contract with the school system and a sharing of expenses.¹² This arrangement would seem to guarantee close coordination of school library agencies and the public library. Actually, school teachers and officials increasingly feel that the public library does not understand, especially as to curriculum content, and cannot meet the ever greater needs of current school use of supplementary materials. The public library representative in the school is seldom looked upon as a real faculty member, and psychological barriers as to loyalties and different schedules and salaries make it difficult to integrate library services fully with classroom objectives and routines.¹³ This arrangement continues mostly in those cities where school authorities are more interested in having the public library meet some of the service costs than they are in having really good school library service. In some cities, because of higher requirements by accrediting units, the public libraries have spent a disproportionate part of their budgets on this service¹⁴ and justified it for its large contribution to their total circulations. In 1957, the Cleveland Public Library was operating libraries in 38 schools, mostly high schools, under a contract with the Cleveland Board of Education, at a total average cost of almost \$16,000 each, of which amount the Public Library contributed almost three-fourths. To be sure this was only about 10 per cent of its current operating expenditures that year, but the bulk of the elementary schools were not so served.¹⁵ For the country as a whole, in 1954, all school libraries were supported at an average of \$1.05 per student for books and other library materials alone and not counting salaries,¹⁶ while public libraries in 1956 spent an average of only 26 cents per capita for books, periodicals, audio-visual materials and binding.¹⁷

Public Library Branches in School Buildings

The other type of arrangement not recommended is the housing of a public library branch in a school building. In theory all the neighboring community as well as the personnel of the school will use it. Supposedly it saves the cost of a branch building, and eliminates duplication of juvenile

library facilities. Necessarily the public library pays at least part and usually the major part of the expenses, especially for personnel and books.

Many cities have discontinued schoolhouse branches, as at Oklahoma City and Kansas City, because they have proved ineffective either as branches or as school libraries. A well-located school is off the main pedestrian arteries, whereas a public library branch belongs in the center of neighborhood pedestrian traffic.¹⁸ The result is that it is used less than it should be even by pupils attending other schools in the general vicinity and hardly at all by adults.¹⁹ Administrative difficulties arise with regard to heating,²⁰ access to the library room, pressure for classroom space with an "outsider" occupying it, etc. The more schoolhouse branches, the more the public library budget is dissipated among small, weak libraries, and the higher the unit costs of service. Although there are a few cases where unusual location or relationships make the idea workable, neither a school library nor a public library can adequately take the place of the other; both are needed in the important and ever more complex task of bringing books and other materials, and related services, to all citizens and to all school children.²¹

Public Library Services to Schools Lacking School Libraries

Where the school has no library, many public libraries feel an obligation to provide a partial substitute, in the form of classroom sets of books, book-mobile stops and classroom visits. Some public librarians frankly admit that this is a mass-production method to increase their circulation figures; some superintendents admit that this justifies them in not budgeting for real school libraries. Both should be aware that these services are a poor substitute for a good school library; both should work toward the withdrawal of the public library's services inside the school.

By a classroom set is meant a collection of books, usually one or two per student, loaned by the public library to an individual teacher for a half or full school year, with opportunity to change some or all books during the year. In 1956, of 3,925 public libraries reporting to the U. S. Office of Education on this point, 2,716 or 69 per cent used this device to serve schools.²² In larger cities, this can get to be a service of considerable volume; thus in 1960-61 the Indianapolis Public Library had at maximum almost 75,000 volumes in 1,778 classroom sets on loan to 131 schools, an average of 42 books per set and of 14 sets per school.²³

Some libraries assemble their classroom sets from a separate school collection, others from the regular stock of children's books. Some loan only books for recreational reading, others loan any of interest. Some require the teacher to select her own books and to transport them to and from the library, others will select the books for her and provide transportation. Some use a relatively short loan period, do not permit the books to be reloaned to

the children for home use, and hold the teacher responsible for all loss or damage; others use a relatively long loan period, permit and encourage the reloan of the books to the children and exempt the teacher from responsibility if the children who so borrow the books are registered with the public library.

In general, it would seem that, if this service is provided, it might as well be provided on as liberal a basis as possible. A circulation count or even an estimate of books reloaned from the classroom to individual children should not be required, or if it is it should be reported separately from the rest of the library's circulation. It is spurious circulation, involving no direct service or even contact between the library and the patron, and when the schools develop their own libraries there will be a great drop in the public library's circulation. Figures of this type of circulation, especially when estimated, are often in error, or are inflated by estimating informal loans which children make among themselves or by encouraging teachers to accept more books than are needed.

Daily across the nation, whole classes rush out to the public library's bookmobile, each child returning books and hastily choosing and borrowing what he can find. The cramped physical quarters, the lack of time for browsing, the slight opportunity for reading guidance or informational help make most school librarians and many public librarians realize that while such crowd service is better than nothing, for example in rural areas, it is decidedly no substitute for a school library nor for borrowing from the public library or branch.²⁴ It does bring to each student a considerably larger and more varied collection of books than he is likely to get from a classroom set, and children's eager acceptance of this service is shown by the great circulations which bookmobiles typically pile up at school stops. The public library is tempted to give ever more of the bookmobile's scheduled time and ever more of its shelf space to meet the endless demands of school children; thereby it neglects the adults and other important types of bookmobile stops and services.

Any public library able to arrange more than one visit per year of a trained librarian to each grade school classroom can be said to be superior in this regard. The librarian may review books, explain how to use books and libraries, tell a story, bring library news and new books for the classroom set, etc.

In Cooperation with School Libraries

Well-developed school libraries make possible fruitful cooperation between the public library and the schools. A good school librarian should initiate, welcome and contribute to the cooperative ventures which will improve service to his teachers and pupils, and the public library staff should have the same willingness to meet the other agency halfway. Appointment

of a library supervisor in the school system tends to bring centralized ordering and cataloging of books, extra copies of needed titles, additional titles on given subjects in a general collection available to all and other improvements to the situation found when the school libraries are all separately administered and completely self-sufficient. A good city school library supervisor is the leader in active cooperation with the local public library, so that the latter's services may help each school.

To be most successful, cooperative action requires an agreement between the school system and the public library, as to the responsibilities each will assume.²⁵ In large cities so much is involved that the public library should have a coordinator of its own services to local public and non-public school pupils. It also calls for a channel of communication, desirably a joint committee of one or more school librarians, the city school library supervisor and the superintendent of schools, and on the part of the public library the chief librarian and the persons in charge of work with schools, with children and with young adults. It should meet regularly to discuss and explore any aspect of the mutual relationship. The committee members will get to know each other and each other's problems, ways of functioning, resources and needs. Impending changes in each other's situation should be discussed. Cooperation may include:

- (1) Supplementing the school libraries' book collection by short-term loans of groups of books or by putting books on special reserve in the public library.
- (2) Selecting, retaining and binding magazines by both libraries to provide as well as possible for the anticipated needs of the students, and with a union list of magazines in both groups of libraries.
- (3) Joint meetings of appropriate personnel for book selection purposes.²⁶
- (4) Consideration of each other's resources in the preparation of book lists.
- (5) Cooperation in such special projects as National Library Week or Children's Book Week.
- (6) Provision of professional books for teachers.
- (7) Joint purchasing of books, rebinding service and cooperative cataloging.²⁷

The public library benefits indirectly to the degree that the school library can improve the service it gives its students; the better the school library, the better prepared are the students to use the public library. They will often have to use it as well as their school library, and even more after they finish school. It also benefits directly, for teachers and school librarian can be better persuaded to forward copies of reading lists used, details of homework assignments and notes of other school activities likely to bring students into the public library. In addition the public library can often arrange to buy supplies at special school discounts, since schools typically buy larger quantities of many office supplies. The schools' print shop can print public library materials to be used in and with the schools, and the schools' transport system and its larger film collection may be made available to the public library.

Despite the amount of tax money involved, few communities have explored and exploited the possibilities of cooperative action between local school and public libraries, as to:

- (1) Use of school libraries in later afternoons, evenings, weekends and summers, or at least the use of their books for the children and the schools' adult classes.
- (2) Development of an integrated program of school and public library instruction in the use of books and libraries, with every child getting orientation at the public library at least once every two years of his twelve years in school.
- (3) Development of effective methods for teaching the mechanics of reading to young children, for correcting reading difficulties in older children, for providing instructional opportunities for adults to improve their reading, and for developing in students the more sophisticated skills of reading, e.g., how to distinguish good literature from bad, how to detect propaganda, and how to choose wisely what to read, all with the active assistance and participation of both types of libraries.
- (4) The establishment of libraries in all schools of the city and the improvement and exploiting of library service in those areas where it is weak, e.g., vocational high schools, industrial arts, business education and mathematics.²⁸
- (5) Needed research in these and related areas.
- (6) Workshops and other methods for two-way communication with the teachers as to how both teachers and librarians and both types of libraries can further assist each other in the instructional process.²⁹

Effective cooperation with the schools cannot be developed unless the public library personnel become acquainted with the main lines of thinking and of developments in curriculum planning, teaching methods and educational philosophy.³⁰

RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHER THAN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Most American communities of appreciable size have one or more non-public schools, e.g., parochial or private elementary, secondary, business or trade schools. There are also the junior or senior colleges, state university extension centers, or other institutions of higher education. In general the same pattern of principles for a desirable relationship with the public library holds true of these as of the public schools. The lack of their own laboratory-libraries should be looked upon as a deprivation to their students; the public library should press to see that each institution has its own effective library and trained librarian and then cooperate with them. In the absence of such libraries, the public library will give the best service possible to the students, and after the school library is in operation it will continue to serve the students with materials the school library does not have.

In the case of most of these schools, it is likely that the public library will have to initiate action, even to offer its own services, let alone to encourage school libraries. Many such private schools tend still to use the textbook method of teaching. Church schools, of course, will insist on con-

trolling the selection of books offered their students; this in itself is not unreasonable but on the other hand the public library should not purchase materials of a particular religious group solely for the use of its schools.

There should be particularly close ties between the public library and any college library in its service area, partly because of the heavy use which the college students can be expected to make of the public library, and partly because many college libraries have collections especially strong in some subjects; this generally makes it easy and appropriate to agree on fields of specialization to avoid duplication. We note in Chapter 30 the need of college students to have continuing instruction in the use of books and libraries, including the local public library.

It may be natural but it is unfortunate that public library personnel overlook the similar aims and close relations so essential between school and public libraries. A public library assistant can give far better service to school pupils, even those served by a school library, by scanning a summary of the local curriculum and some of the guides to handling school reference work, which as we have noted is bound to increase in both types of libraries.²¹

FOOTNOTES AND SPECIAL MATERIAL.

1. On the general theme of school and public library relationships, see Alice L. Le Fevre, "Administrative Control," in *Library Trends*, 1: 286-297, Jan. 1953. Also in *A.L.A. Bulletin*, 53: 103-134, Feb. 1959, particularly Lowell A. Martin, "Relation of Public and School Libraries in Serving Youth," p. 112-117, and Eleanor E. Ahlers, "School and Public Library Relationships: A Selected Bibliography," p. 134.

2. A.L.A. American Association of School Librarians. *Standards for School Library Programs*. 144 p. 1960. A.L.A., p. 35.

3. In 1954, centralized school libraries were found at most in 26% of all public elementary schools, serving 41% of all students; in 1959, centralized school libraries were found in 34% of the schools and served 49% of all students. Centralized school libraries served 96% of all public high schools in 1954, and 97% of all students; in 1959, they were found in 97% of the schools and served 98% of the students. See Nora E. Beust and Emery M. Foster. *Statistics of Public-School Libraries, 1953-54*. (Chapter 6 of U.S. Office of Education, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1952-54; GPO. 1957.) p. 17-22. Also Mary H. Mahar. *Public School Library Statistics, 1958-59*. (U.S. Office of Education publication no. OE-15020, Oct. 1960.) p. 1. Also Mary V. Caver. *Every Child Needs a School Library*. 16 p. 1958. A.L.A. In 1959 the Minneapolis Public Library announced discontinuance of some 20 sub-branches in school buildings; this led Harris S. Smith, of the Library Division of the State Board of Education, to write "The Case for Independent School Libraries," *American School Board Journal*, 139: 23-24, Oct. 1959. Reprinted in *Minnesota Libraries*, 19: 220-221, Dec. 1959.

4. Frances Henne and Frances L. Spain. "The School and the Public Library," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 302: 52-59, Nov. 1955.

5. Helen R. Sattley. "Children Come First," *Library Journal*, 77: 670-674, Apr. 15, 1952. Also Carolyn I. Whitenack. "Historical Development of the Elementary School Library," *Illinois Libraries*, 38: 143-149, June 1956.

6. For problems and experiences of school library supervisors: Eleanora Alexander. *School Library Supervision: Practical Problems and Answers*. (in Houston, Texas). Univ. of Illinois Library School. *Occasional Papers*. no. 40. 11 p. Dec. 1954. Also Miriam E. Peterson. "Supervision of School Libraries at the City Level." *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*. 43: 32-41. Nov. 1959. Also M. Bernice Wiese. "Then and Now in Baltimore School Libraries." *Maryland Libraries*. 22: 11-14. Fall 1955. Harold Lancour, ed. *The School Library Supervisor*. 94 p. 1956. A.L.A. The major reference.
7. Frances Henne. "The Basic Need in Library Service for Youth." *Library Quarterly*. 25: 37-46. Jan. 1955.
8. Amy Winslow and Alice L. Robinson. "The Public Library and the School Library: Similar Ends But Different Methods." *Maryland Libraries*. Fall 1955. p. 4-8. Reprinted in *Top of the News*. 12: 40-45. Dec. 1955.
9. Mary V. Gaver. "Effectiveness of Centralized Library Service in Elementary Schools (Phase 1)." *Library Quarterly*. 31: 245-56. July 1961.
10. Arlington County (Va.) Public Schools. *Annual Library Report: 1960-61*. 1 p.
11. Harold L. Hamill. "The Public Library and the New Educational Program." *Library Journal*. 85: 3605-3610. Oct. 15, 1960.
12. Ruth M. White, ed. *Public Library Policies—General and Specific*. *Public Library Reporter*. No. 9. 109 p. 1960. A.L.A. p. 80-86.
13. American Association of School Librarians. "The Philosophy of School Libraries as Instructional Materials Centers." *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*. 43: 110-12. Nov. 1959.
14. For example, see Agnes Krump. "Portland Severs an Old Bond." *Library Journal*. 81: 101-104. Jan. 15, 1946. Also Helene S. Taylor. "A Public Library Discontinues School Service." (Bloomfield, N.J.) *A.L.A. Bulletin*. 53: 125-126. Feb. 1959. Also Ralph A. Ulveling and Ruth Rutzen. *Public Library Service in Madison, Wisconsin*. Madison Free Library. 1952. p. 25.
15. Arlene A. Theuer. *Public Libraries in Cuyahoga County: Staff Report to Study Group on Public Libraries*. Cleveland Metropolitan Services Commission. 1959. p. 27, 29, 40. Since 1958, when the Ohio Supreme Court invalidated public library support of school libraries, in the Ross County case (168 O S 108), Cleveland Public Library has reduced expenditures for school libraries.
16. Beust. *op. cit.* p. 29. In 1959, centralized libraries spent an average of \$1.60 per student for materials; see Mahat, *op. cit.*, p. 2.
17. The per-capita expenditure of public libraries for all expenses was \$1.45, and 17.8% of the expenditures was for materials. Rose Vainstein, ed. *Statistics of Public Libraries: 1955-56*. U.S. Office of Education. p. 16-17.
18. Joseph L. Wheeler. *The Effective Location of Public Library Buildings*. Univ. of Illinois Library School. *Occasional Papers* no. 52. 1958. p. 2.
19. Annual studies of the use of 5 public library branches in elementary school buildings in Evansville, Ind., from 1955 to 1957, showed an average of 5% of all circulation was to non-school personnel, while of 4 other branches in library-owned buildings an average of 44% of total circulation was to persons other than teachers and students of the nearest public elementary school. A sixth school building branch open two evenings and on Saturdays and closed during 40% of the school hours had an average circulation of 35% to other than the teachers and students in its schoolhouse. See Evansville Public Library. *Staff News Bulletin*. Apr. 15, 1955, p. 43-44. June 1, 1956, p. 49. Apr. 1, 1957, p. 49.
20. For example, school buildings must be equipped with heat circuits for the library room alone, or it must close when the school closes. See Oakland (Cal.) Public Library. *Oak Leaves*. Dec. 26, 1950. p. 2-3.

21. Harry H. Peterson. "Public Library Branches in School Buildings." *A.L.A. Bulletin*. 54: 215-218. Mar. 1960. School officials increasingly support this stand: Sidney P. Marland (Superintendent, Winnetka, Ill.). "Cooperation Between Public and School Libraries to Gain Better Public Service." *Iowa Library Quarterly*. 18: 166-169. Jan. 1960.
22. Vainstein. *op. cit.* p. 9.
23. Indianapolis Public Library. *Annual Report: 1960-61*. p. 8.
24. "Public Library Bookmobile Service to Schools." (5 letters.) *A.L.A. Bulletin*. 52: 121-124. Feb. 1958. Also Edith E. Estabrooks. "How Not to Give Bookmobile Service to Schools." same issue. p. 129-30.
25. For example, Evansville (Ind.) Public Library and Evansville School Corporation. *Statement of Agreement on Provision of Library Service to Children and Schools*. 1960. p. 4. mimeo.
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27. Elizabeth Adcock. "A County Library 'Sells' Technical Processing to School Libraries" (Weld County Library, Greeley, Colo.). *A.L.A. Bulletin*. 53: 128. Feb. 1959. Also Gretchen K. Schenk. "For Extension Librarians." *Wilson Library Bulletin*. 34: 611. April 1960.
28. N.E.A. Research Division. *The Secondary School Teacher and Library Services*. (Research Memorandum. 1958-M1). 1958. p. 13 *passim*.
29. The prevailing complaint of librarians is that teachers fail to notify them of impending assignments. See Marian Scott. "Student Assignments Worry Librarians, Too." *A.L.A. Bulletin*. 53: 127-28. Feb. 1959. Also Peggy Sullivan. "School Assignments and Public Library Service." *Ibid.* p. 130. Also "Cooperation Between Schools and Public Libraries." *Maryland Libraries*. 25-26: 14-16. Summer-Fall 1959. Also "Reference Service to Students." *A.L.A. Bulletin*. 53: 131. Feb. 1959. Many public libraries, such as Queens Borough, N.Y., and Toledo, O. have recently distributed to teachers a statement of what can be done by each to help the other.
30. Classic still useful statements: The Joint Committee of N.E.A. and A.L.A. *Schools and Public Libraries Working Together in School Library Service*. 64 p. 1941. N.E.A. Also Indiana Library Association Committee on Public Library-School Library Relationships. *Joining Forces for Library Services to Youth*. 46 p. 1955. Also the N.E.A. Research Division. *The Secondary-School Teacher and Library Services*. (Research Monograph. 1958-M1). 37 p. 1958. N.E.A. Summarized as "Library Services," in the N.E.A. *Research Bulletin*. 36: 76-81. Oct. 1958.
31. Martin Rosoff. *The Library in High School Teaching*. 2nd ed. 1961. 166 p. Wilson Co. \$3.

CHAPTER 23

Administration of Audio-Visual Materials

Librarianship has been the direct beneficiary of the communications revolution which began with the invention of printing more than five hundred years ago and is still unfolding in new forms. Libraries need and want ever more books. But in the last quarter century or so, another communications revolution has taken place. New media of communicating ideas and messages other than by print have become popular, especially phonograph records and films; they are usually known collectively as audio-visual materials.

THE IMPORTANCE OF AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

After World War I there was a great development both of phonograph records and of recreational Hollywood-type films. For a time the rise of radio seemed to threaten the existence of the phonograph record industry, but in a few years the radio stations came to depend on records as the source of broadcast music, and the popularity of radio broadened the market for phonograph records.

A new era for the motion picture industry began with the perfecting of talking pictures in 1929, only to be engulfed by the meteoric rise of TV after 1945. But TV has come to rely more and more on the use of films and of kinescopes, which are 16-mm. film editions of live telecasts. For this and other reasons the 16-mm. film industry has expanded greatly, especially for educational purposes. During and since World War II many school systems have operated radio stations and there are now about thirty city school systems which operate educational TV stations. The use of TV for teaching all sorts of subjects in schools, colleges, business, industry and government has grown so rapidly that it has challenged libraries to utilize this and other audio-visual methods to spread ideas and information to the public.

Not all audio-visual aids are equally effective and the library has to select, purchase and service those which are most desirable and which will be most useful to library patrons.

EXTENT OF AUDIO-VISUAL USE IN PUBLIC LIBRARIES

Public libraries have traditionally been concerned with books and other printed materials—magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, maps, flat pictures, posters, printed music, etc.—presumably because of the effectiveness with which they serve to present the thoughts and ideas of their authors, and the ease with which they can be consulted and used. But for some years there have been many excellent records and films which do some of these same things but in a different form than the printed book, and in some cases better. If public libraries are seriously interested in acquiring, organizing and making available the best thinking of this and earlier ages, then the form of the materials in which that thinking is cast is secondary—not unimportant but secondary. The real question is not whether public libraries should handle phonograph records and films, but rather under what circumstances and to what extent they should do so.¹ For more than forty years public libraries have circulated phonograph records of music, and possibly two or three hundred public libraries had record collections even before World War II, though only a few public libraries handled films before 1940. Since then, however, there has been a great increase, and it is estimated that today there are over 1,500 libraries with phonograph records² and over 500 with film collections of their own or participating in film co-operatives.³

A public library should not consider handling phonograph records or films unless it has the funds to do a good job of handling books and other print. For the near future at least, it would appear that books are still the basic materials in the communication and information-finding process in general and in education in particular. Inadequate book collections and book budgets or an inadequate staff should not further be weakened by spreading them over an even wider area.

Public library statistics for 1959 show that of 112 libraries in cities of over 100,000 population, 82 reported servicing A. V. materials which cost 3.1 per cent of their budgets for materials, when for all materials they were spending only 12.8 per cent of their total budgets. Of 118 libraries in cities of 50,000 to 100,000 population, 79 reported an average of 4.4 per cent for A. V. materials out of their materials budgets, when for all materials they were spending only 15.5 per cent of their total budgets. Of 102 libraries in cities of 35,000 to 50,000, 52 systems reported an average of 3.6 per cent for A. V. materials out of their materials budgets, when for all materials they were spending only 16.7 per cent of their total budgets.⁴ In view of

the fairly steady decrease over the years in the proportion of total public library budgets which is spent for books, librarians should be sure of their ground before they attempt to stock these A. V. materials.

The size of the community has some relationship to the answer. The fact that only half the libraries in the 35,000 to 50,000 population group just discussed had A. V. materials in 1959 may suggest that 50,000 population is the minimum at which a library should start its own film collection. The growth of film circuits and of regional library systems will make it increasingly possible for smaller libraries to borrow films from a central stock and at a smaller percentage of their total budget for materials. The typical salary cost for a person or staff needed to service films, make contacts and participate in programs needs to be compared with an average cost of \$3 to \$5 for the majority of good recordings of music or of readings, which in small libraries can be simply placed on shelves for patron use. In view of the almost universal staff shortage, the added staff time and salary total involved on the part of all who participate in the servicing of A. V. materials should not be overlooked.

It is suggested that not more than 5 per cent of the library's "book and materials" budget be spent on records and films⁵ and not over 3 per cent in cities with less than half a \$ million total budgets, and that these services not be attempted on total budgets of less than \$2 per capita nor until the library has a sufficient number of trained children's, reference and young adult workers to meet its primary obligation to its community. These suggestions derive from the failure of many libraries to meet existing reading and informational demands; they stem from the conviction, as discussed in Chapter I, that public libraries should make a concerted effort to increase adult reading, study and information use, because no other form of communication has equal educational value. The use of films is typically by a group and as often for recreational as for educational purposes; the necessary conditions for substantial educational benefit are not usually met, such as an introduction to the film by an informed person.

The library should ascertain whether there is any other source of films and similar materials in the community, or within reasonable distance for general public use. Thus, the New York Public Library has only a few films, because of the great number of other local agencies offering them. The Milwaukee city council made a policy decision that the museum and not the library should handle films for general public use. Vancouver P. L. recently cut back on films for entertainment, in favor of educational film, when it found it was one of 120 film sources in its area, with only 300 of the 9,000 films available in the area. In all such cases, the public library should cooperate with the other agencies and not duplicate their work. Almost every school system of any size has instructional films for classroom use, but do not allow their use outside the schools.⁶ Some of the largest film libraries in the country are at state universities, though in most cases

restricted to instructional films for schools and available at only one location each or by mail.

Because phonograph records were for long almost exclusively of music, they were usually placed with the collection of music scores or of books about music and art in general, when they first were introduced into libraries. If no such special art or music department exists, the records are usually handled by the circulation department. Films, however, are distinctly different from and unrelated to any other type of material, and they have tended to be organized in public libraries as a separate agency; less frequently, films are part of a group services office or combined with records. Both films and records have a popular appeal to prospective donors, and many a public library has first faced the question of handling films or records when offered a gift of some. It is also true that public libraries which begin to handle films or records at a minimum level almost always find them popular and successful, and deserving of increased support.

AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS USUALLY FOUND IN PUBLIC LIBRARIES

Phonograph Records

About one-fifth of all American public libraries now handle phonograph records, and most public librarians are probably in favor in doing so. The 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ rpm LP records available since about 1948 are preferred for general circulation. The earlier 78 rpm records are today of primary interest only in reference collections, though some children's records are still made for that speed. The 45 rpm record is produced only by RCA-Victor and is less desirable for library use than 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ pressings. Stereophonic records, requiring a machine with two speakers, give greater fidelity but are probably not justified in most public libraries unless an otherwise comprehensive collection of records has already been assembled. Magnetic tapes are being used increasingly not only for music and speech, and now also in stereophonic versions, but also for internal library purposes, such as dictation. This type of material, however, should not be considered until the record collection is adequate.

There is an ever-increasing number of tools for the selection of phonograph records, including the catalogs of the major companies.⁷ A number of good books survey critically the records available at the time of writing (e.g., Irving Kolodin's *New Guide to Recorded Music*); and Schwann's *Long Playing Record Catalog* and *The Long Player* correspond to the *Publishers' Trade List Annual*. The sources of reviews on new records include such magazines as *Library Journal* and *Saturday Review*. The Music Library Association's "Index to Record Reviews" in its quarterly publication, *Notes*, corresponds to the *Book Review Digest*. Few local shops, ex-

cept in the largest cities, carry as wide a variety of the better records as a public library would desire, and seldom give more than 10-20 per cent discount. There are several record supply houses which ship all over the country, have extensive and varied holdings, and give libraries 30 per cent discount or more. The large record companies themselves do not sell to public libraries, but some regional distributors handle public library orders and at 40 per cent discount.

Public library record collections average about 500 discs and a few large libraries have about 20,000 records each. A collection of 500 records will result in about 2,500 loans a year, and their servicing should take only a few hours a week. For fewer than 5,000 discs, a simple, functional and obvious classification is by the producing company and then by its serial or disc number, using the company catalog as a key. Subject grouping is not only unnecessary because browsing in the usual sense is not possible, but also inadvisable because so many records consist of two or more compositions issued on the same disc. Furthermore, the cataloging of records usually and desirably involves subject cards for the type of music as well as entries for composer and by distinctive title. The first guide to such cataloging of records was issued in 1942, and a comprehensive code is now available, but most public libraries will probably use simple headings and brief descriptions.⁸ One good reason for doing so is that records wear out in the normal course of use, as do books, but cannot be "rebound" and are likely to be replaced by a more recent recording of the same composition. The card catalog of phonorecords is usually kept separate from the library's general catalog of books, and near the records themselves, but a good argument can be made for filing cards for records in the general catalog.⁹

Phonorecords require shelves a little deeper and a little taller than are used for books. Vertical dividers every five or six inches are also necessary to keep records upright, and tubs at counter-height level are desirable to permit easy scanning of available pieces. A record collection is obviously incomplete without a turntable or record player, preferably with earphones for patrons to listen and decide whether to borrow a disc, and so that record concerts can be held if desired. Such an instrument can be purchased for less than \$100, but a console model or one with two or more sets of earphones will cost substantially more. Large libraries need listening booths or a separate room, especially if the library maintains a reference collection of phonograph records.

The staff member put in charge of records should at least be interested in this type of material and have some background of musical knowledge. Basic policy questions include whether to have popular music of the day, whether to lend records free or for a fee, how strictly to charge for damage, whether to make records available in the branch libraries, etc. Most libraries emphasize classical and semiclassical music of lasting worth, including modern compositions and even of popular musical plays, but not including

the best-seller jazz records which are soon out of vogue. Nonmusical records are important, e.g., foreign-language instruction records, transcriptions of Broadway plays, readings of poetry and other literature, and documentary accounts of news and historical events. Libraries usually loan records free,¹⁰ but limit the number which may be borrowed and the length of loan. A careless patron can ruin a new record even more easily than he can a new book;¹¹ some libraries put new records in a class by themselves and give them extra-careful examination after each use, until normal wear and tear have taken their toll. Skilled "reader's advisory" service on the choice of records is no less useful or easy here than in the sphere of books. Records can often lead patrons to books on the same or related subjects, or the connection can be made by a librarian's suggestions, by booklists which include both records and books and by making appropriate books available at record concerts.

Motion Picture Films

Most 16-mm. films found in public libraries will be listed and described in one or another of such major sources of film information as the new *Educational Media Index*. The A. L. A. has published a basic list of *Films for Public Libraries* (60 p., 1955) and a *Supplement* (24 p., 1957). Critical reviews of new 16-mm. motion pictures are to be found in various publications, notably on cards available from the Educational Film Library Association, and in the *Landers Film Reviews*, which resembles in appearance and function the *Virginia Kirkus Service* in the field of books. There are in addition the catalogs of the state university film libraries, the many selected lists of films in specific subject areas, lists of free or sponsored films, including government productions, and the various magazines on this subject, especially *Educational Screen*.⁷ Public library selection of films for purchase should also be based in part on the opinions of knowledgeable citizens of the community invited to attend a preview screening.

Film prices range from \$50 to \$250 for a new print, depending on the length of running time and on whether it is in color or not. All too often, a film can only be rented by the day or week and not purchased at all; this is especially true of religious films. On the other hand many films can be secured under a rental purchase plan, and sponsored films will often be deposited with a public library upon request for a period of years without charge. Film stock is relatively strong; if handled properly, a film print can easily be screened over a hundred times, bringing the cost of the film per viewer down to a fraction of a cent. Furthermore 16-mm. film can be repaired, "spliced," and often new footage purchased for the damaged portion. On the other hand a careless projectionist can ruin a film in any of several different ways. Films can go out of date too.

Film reels come usually in 400- and 800-inch lengths, on round metal

reels in flat cans. They require special racks to be held upright for best use. Every time a film is used, it should be completely inspected for damage. This requires a pair of hand rewind posts (costing from \$25 to \$50 a pair) or an electrical set (costing about \$200). A splicer costs about \$15 and is a necessity. A projector will cost about \$500. Even more so than in the case of records, films are best handled in a room by themselves since usually they will be borrowed and returned there and not at the general loan desk, and often the same room is equipped for film viewing.

The average public library film collection has fewer than two hundred reels;¹² any collection of over a thousand is a large one indeed. On the average, films will be borrowed ten to fifteen times a year each, and the reserving, loaning and inspection of the films will take twelve to fifteen hours a week. Classification need be nothing more than alphabetical arrangement by film title. And instead of cataloging films, most public libraries simply issue a periodically revised list of films in the collection.¹³ Films are typically loaned free of charge, though there may be a small charge for insurance. The circulation period is twenty-four to forty-eight hours, since usually there is only one print available of a given title and it is loaned for a specific showing. Reserves are necessary, and overdue fines tend to be high. Most libraries require special registration for the use of their films, including an assurance of the availability of proper equipment and an experienced operator. Typically the library requires a report of the estimated number of persons in the audience.

Because of the high cost of films, over two dozen film cooperatives or film circuits have been started since 1950, stimulated by Carnegie Corporation pilot grants for the purpose to the Cleveland Public Library and the Missouri State Library.¹⁴ A film circuit consists of several public libraries which band together to pool their funds (from \$200 to \$500 a year each) and secure a group of films, which are then routed in blocks to each member library in turn, usually for a month at a time. Given advance notice of the films to be available in a given month, the local library can publicize these and accept reservations. Often the local market for the films in question has been exhausted by the end of the month, but over the year the same films will have had tremendous use in all the member libraries. As the years go by, the total number of films in the circuit increases as does the size of each monthly block. It is an ingenious answer to a purely financial obstacle.¹⁵

There is a vast range of material now available on film, including animated-cartoon-type films, documentaries in the pure sense of the term, travel films, films which explain particular bits of science, instructional films and, at all levels, news reels, full-length biographies, films which recapture historical events, films on social problems and many others. Some of these can probably be omitted or given only token representation in a public library film collection. Even so, if a public library allows its films to

be used in schools, they will account for a quarter to a third of total usage; and if the films are loaned for home use, that will account for perhaps another 25 per cent of all use.¹⁶

There are at least three main types of services which public libraries can render in regard to films. One is simply to provide film information; even if a public library has no films to loan, it can provide some of the printed tools and lists noted above. A second area is that of loaning films and providing related services, e.g., preview facilities, union lists of films physically available in the community, and advice on the choice of films for particular programs. The third main type of service encompasses all that can be done to develop and improve film utilization in the community, such as free film showings at the library on a regular schedule, publicizing the films available and their potential uses, coordination with the school system and other local film libraries, creation of a film council,¹⁷ systematic showings of foreign films or art films or oldtime films, as from the Museum of Modern Art in New York City, development of a film festival, encouraging the use of films as a springboard for discussion and relating books to films and vice versa.¹⁸

Filmstrips (or slide films) consist of still pictures on 35-mm film, and are usually handled together with motion pictures. Few public libraries have many of them, even a hundred or more, unless they are serving schools with them. Filmstrips are particularly useful for teaching purposes and in some ways are more effective than motion pictures. Some filmstrips are made for adult audiences, though most are for elementary school grades; many deal with religious subjects. For most libraries an alphabetical arrangement by title, and a periodically revised list of titles will suffice for classification and cataloging. Some filmstrips have a sound track in the form of a phonograph record which is keyed to the series of pictures on the film. Filmstrips come in color or in black-and-white. They are relatively inexpensive (\$2 or \$3 for a filmstrip of 40 to 50 frames), but require a special projector which usually also will handle 2 by 2 inch glass slides and costs about \$50.

Other Audio-Visual Materials

Besides phonograph records and films and filmstrips, public libraries have collected and utilized in varying degrees other types of audio-visual aids, such as slides and stereographs, framed reproductions of art and projected books. Of these, glass slides enclosing transparent photographs, are by far the most numerous. They have a long history too, though the older slides were 3¼ by 4 inches and the newer ones are 2 by 2 inches, the size of a 35-mm. film camera exposure. Slides may be purchased,¹⁹ and they can be made locally. This latter feature enables any library to develop a graphic record of local history. Slides are often used in school

teaching, but they are also valuable to adults for showing to a group or on television. Relatively few libraries collect slides but there are a number of large collections, e.g., approximately 20,000 at Enoch Pratt Free Library and 30,000 at Minneapolis Public Library. Stereographs consist of two identical views on a card, of a scene or object, which give the appearance of depth when seen through a hand viewer or stereoscope. These have long been popular with children, especially before the days of motion pictures. Stereographs as such are no longer made, but the same principle is used in the Viewmaster and its cards of story or travel scenes in color.

Reproductions of art, on the other hand, constitute a relatively recent type of material for public libraries to handle on a loan basis, and represent a phase of the great upsurge of interest in art in this country. Since the end of World War II, about a hundred libraries across the country have purchased or rented some of the many excellent reproductions of art which are available in color at about \$25 apiece on the average, with all main schools of art represented. The pictures are without glass, are framed or mounted so as to be hung on the wall, and usually are rented to the patron for a monthly fee.²⁰

Projected books consist of microfilmed editions of standard works and modern titles, to be projected on the ceiling of a room, over a bedridden or disabled person unable to sit up and read. Initiated by Eugene Power of University Microfilms as a public service project, it has been sponsored by the Lions Club in many communities. To make this device available to those for whom it is intended, royalty payments and publisher's profits have been waived. As a result the projected books, like the talking books for the blind, are not available to other readers. Some agency in every community should provide this service; if no one else does it, it would be appropriate for the public library.

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FOOTNOTES AND SPECIAL MATERIAL

2. Of 1,133 public libraries in 1950 which reported having miscellaneous materials, no more than 1,100 are shown having sound recordings; and these reported a total of

320,660 titles or an average of 300 in each of the 1,100 libraries. See *Public Library Statistics: 1950*. U.S. Office of Education. *Bulletin*. 1953. no. 9; GPO, 1954. p. 36. For 1955-56 of 1,657 public libraries with miscellaneous stock, conceivably all but 5 had sound recordings. A total of 912,555 titles were reported, an average of 550 per library. See Rose Vainstein. *Statistics of Public Libraries: 1955-56*. *op. cit.*

3. Phyllis B. Steckler. "Report of Audio-Visual Activities in the Public Library: 1957-58." *The American Library Annual and Book Trade Almanac: 1959*. Bowker, 1958. p. 162-77. Lists about 400 libraries with the number of films each has and annual audiences.

4. U. S. Office of Education. *Statistics of Public Library Systems in Cities with Population of 100,000 or More* . . . 1959. *Bulletin* 15014A (Revised) Oct. 1960. p. 2, 8. (Ditto) *with Populations of 50,000 to 99,999* . . . 1959. *Bulletin* 15015. Aug. 1960. p. 2, 8. (Ditto) *with Populations of 35,000 to 50,000* . . . 1959. *Bulletin* 15016. Aug. 1960. p. 2, 8.

5. This limit of 5% of the book fund supports the 50,000 population minimum for developing work with films. In 1956 the average total expenditure for books and magazines of almost 500 public libraries serving 25,000 to 49,999 people was just under \$7,500. Five per cent of this is \$375, which is about the average cost of membership in a film cooperative. See Rose Vainstein. *op. cit.* p. 97.

6. Gloria Waldron. *The Information Film*. *op. cit.* p. 96-97.

7. Margaret V. Rufsvold and Carolyn Guss. *Guides to Newer Educational Media: Films, Filmstrips, Phonorecords, Radio, Slides, TV*. 74 p. 1961. A.L.A. Also U.S. Government *Films for Public Educational Use-1960*. 502 p. 1961. U.S. Office of Education. Several thousand items, most of them available for carriage only. The *Educational Media Index*, will in 1963 replace Wilson Co.'s *Educational Film Guide*, and be published by Educational Media Council, 250 W. 57th St., N. Y. 19.

8. Music Library Association. *Code for Cataloging Music and Phonorecords*. 1958. A.L.A. p. 39-50. Also *Library of Congress Catalog: Music and Phonorecords* (annual cumulation). Also Carl T. Cox. "The Cataloging of Records." *Library Journal*. 85: 4523-4525. Dec. 15, 1960. Or *Junior Libraries*. 8: 19-20. Dec. 15, 1960. Chester K. Davis. "Record Collections, 1960: L.J.'s Survey of Fact and Opinion." *Library Journal*. 85: 3378-80. Oct. 1, 1960.

9. Marian Tili. "Treat Records Like Books." *Library Journal*. 85: 4518-4521. Dec. 15, 1960. Or *Junior Libraries*. 8: 14-17. Dec. 15, 1960.

10. The Roberts Committee report on English public libraries recommended that there be no charge for the loan of "gramophone records" and called them "... a legitimate and valuable addition to the resources of a public library. ..." See Great Britain Ministry of Education. *The Structure of the Public Library Service in England and Wales* (Cmd. 660; HMSO, 1959.) p. 25.

11. A great advantage of tapes over records is the lack of wear from use. But a mistake in setting the controls of a tape recorder can wipe off the sound.

12. In 1956 there were 42,582 film titles in an unspecified number of public libraries, not exceeding 1,483. This gives a minimum average of less than 30 films and a maximum average of about 100, assuming there were then only about 400 libraries with films. See Vainstein. *op. cit.* p. 66-67.

13. For larger libraries which wish to prepare catalog cards for films, the Library of Congress has prepared a code of rules. See also the annual *Library of Congress Catalog: Motion Pictures and Filmstrips*.

14. There were 18 film cooperatives among public libraries in 1955, see Patricia B. Cory and Violet F. Myer. *Cooperative Film Services in Public Libraries*. 1956. A.L.A. p. 2. An A.L.A. survey in 1957 found over 20 film cooperatives. Steckler. *op. cit.* p. 163.

15. Ida Goshkin. "The Why and How of Film Circuits." *A.L.A. Bulletin*. 55: 545-548. June 1961. Resulting exchange of letters, 55: 670. Sept. 1961.

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17. Waldron. *op. cit.* p. 135-41.
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CHAPTER 24

Administration of Branch and Extension Work

Three main stages can be distinguished in the history of the American public library. From 1850 to 1890, the concern was with the mechanics of organization, the acquisition of books, and with catalogs and classification systems, housing and procedures for lending books. From about 1890 to 1925, the emphasis was on making books more readily available, by removing barriers between readers and books, by making book use more convenient to ever more groups of people and by building branches—this long before the idea of branch banks or department stores. From about 1925 to date, the focus of attention has been on motivating and guiding readers in their use of books and libraries. It is not that each phase replaced the other but rather that each was added to the earlier emphases. Thus the efforts to make books readily available through branch libraries and other means have increased over the years, and have not yet reached their peak.

Some of these methods have not proved successful or efficient, and have either disappeared from the scene or now have only a special and limited role. These include delivery stations, home stations, industrial deposits, home delivery routes and public library collections of books in hospitals and other institutions. Still others have come upon the more recent scene and have great promise, notably the bookmobile. But for seventy-five years the use of branch libraries has been the backbone of public libraries' extension efforts. Branches will be discussed first as constituting a system and then in terms of the operation of an individual branch.^{1, 2, 3} Bookmobiles will be taken up next,^{4, 5, 6} and finally a few other distributing agencies.

THE BRANCH SYSTEM

The Importance of Branches

In any city of appreciable size, the main public library building is likely to be of imposing size and at a prominent location, with a large book col-

lection and many diverse services. For these and similar reasons it is often taken as the expression of the whole of the public library. The branch libraries on the other hand are scattered, each in a relatively small building or occupying only part of a building designed for some other use, and with a relatively small book stock and limited services. It is in the nature of a branch that it will not be as complete or self-sufficient as the main library, or offer services as extensive or varied. But if a branch is well justified it has a great importance of its own, and in cities with several well-managed branches their circulation will exceed that of the main library. The larger the population served, the more branches and the greater is their proportion of total circulation, ranging from about 45 per cent in cities of 100,000 to above 80 per cent in the case of libraries serving a million or more. The automobile has made access to branches easy enough so that they no longer need to be so near each other. If branches are fewer each can be larger; and with parking difficult at most central libraries, branches play a larger part than ever in the city-wide service pattern. Librarians are taking a new look at the place and function of branches.

A branch public library is usually defined as an agency in its own building or rooms, with a substantial and permanent book stock, with paid staff members, and open to the public on a regular schedule of hours. For many years the attempt was made to draw a distinction between a branch and a sub-branch, the latter usually being smaller, with fewer books and less staff. Because quantitative limits were never established for either type and because the long-term trend is toward larger branches, sub-branches will not be considered here separately from small branches. The first modern branch public library is generally considered to have been opened in Boston around 1870, and by 1890 the trend to branches was well established. It was aided by the program of Carnegie building grants from 1895 to 1917, which provided branches as well as central libraries. By 1950, the 6,028 public libraries which reported to the U. S. Office of Education had 5,093 branches and sub-branches, or an average of almost one apiece.⁷ In 1955, 6,263 public libraries reported 5,285 branches and sub-branches.⁸ *The American Library Directory* for 1960 lists 7,204 public libraries by name, and reports 3,625 branches in 721 library systems.⁹

Despite the undoubted and growing importance of branch libraries, this aspect of public library administration poses more problems and offers less satisfactory answers in practice than almost any other. This stems from the lack of clarity as to the proper function of branches, and as to the relationships of branches to each other and to the central library. Two main theories of branch library function have competed with each other. One envisages a branch library as a smaller-scale public library, offering reference and other special services as does the central library. The other assumes that branch libraries should be mainly agencies for the circulation of popular books at the neighborhood level. Both theories are valid, since

they apply to different types of agencies; but there should be far fewer of the small, weak distributing branches, and many more of the large, stronger branches which can give information service to adults and young people. In short we need to distinguish between a book distributing branch¹⁰ and a library service branch. If one recognizes the difference in their function, many administrative problems could be more easily resolved.

A library serving from 25,000 to 50,000 population will need some book distributing agencies such as classroom sets, bookmobile stops or deposit stations, but not a branch. A city of 50,000 to 75,000 may be justified in investing capital building costs and a segment of its annual budget to operate a distributing branch but cannot afford trained librarians to help people find the materials they come to get. With almost universal ownership of automobiles, not more than one such branch is needed for this population, though in exceptional cities with high economic and educational background two or three branches may do well. Yet is that the most economical and efficient setup? The question should be carefully considered whether a city of this size would not do better to wait until it can finance a larger, service branch that will go far beyond simply housing and lending books. As now operated, very few of the book distributing branches include or circulate more than a modicum of adult nonfiction. A library serving 100,000 population may need one and sometimes two service branch libraries in addition to its main library and the minor distributing agencies.

Desirable Features of Service Branch Libraries

When branch libraries are conceived of as library service agencies, it is apparent that a minimum size is necessary, just as is true of independent libraries attempting to give the wide range of service which modern public libraries render.

A branch is justified only when an objective survey shows that it will be assured a minimum annual circulation of 75,000 and desirably 100,000 books (of which 45 per cent to 50 per cent will be adult circulation), and that at least 10,000 adult informational questions will be answered each year.

A branch library, by this definition, is a relatively impressive institution. It should have its own building, though sufficient ground area for parking need not be on the same plot. The per-foot cost to buy a strategic pedestrian center site for the building should be three or four times as high as that for parking space a block or two away, which may require more ground space than does the building. A branch circulating 100,000 or more books a year should have about 8,000 square feet of floor space, of which 7,000 should be on the main floor, at sidewalk level, with about 75 seats for adults and young adults and 50 for children, and a book stock of 25,000 with

active discarding and 1,500 books added each year.¹¹ At 1961 prices it would cost about \$200,000 for its construction and equipment, and it may be necessary to pay a third as much for the site as for the building. Such a branch would be open about 8 hours a day at least 5 days a week, and have a staff of 5 or 6 full-time employees (other than the custodian) and including two or three professional librarians.

Many branches already meet or exceed these standards, especially in larger cities, as indicated by the data in Tables 24-1 and 24-2.¹² Evidently, by these criteria, something less than half and perhaps only a third of existing branches would qualify.¹³ The other branches now in existence are to varying degrees uneconomical units of operation, with a relatively high cost per unit of use and giving relatively little service beyond the distribution of books. Many of these ineffective branches should be closed. Others should be upgraded by larger book collections, but especially by more and better-qualified staff. The same sort of effort, now belatedly under way to persuade many small independent public libraries to join regional systems, should be matched by active discouragement of any more branch libraries too small and too weak to do more than distribute books.¹⁴

Table 24-1. Mean/Median Average Staff and Hours Open of 383 Branches of 27 Large Municipal Public Libraries.*

Annual circulation range	No. of branches	No. of professional librarians(a)	No. of assistants(a)	No. of hours open per week
Over 175,000	67	7/4	6/6	54/56
150,000-174,000	28	6/3	4/4	63/50
125,000-149,000	41	3/3	3/3	48/45
100,000-124,999	60	3/3	3/3	48/46
75,000-99,999	65	2/2	3/3	45/43
50,000-74,000	71	1/2	2/2	42/43
25,000-59,999	44	2/1	2/1	38/38
Under 25,000	7	1/1	1/1	19/18

This table is to be read as follows: Of 67 branches with over 175,000 annual circulation each, the mean average number of professional librarians was 7 and the median 4, the mean average number of assistants was 6 and the median 6, and the mean average number of hours open per week was 54 and the median 56.

(a) In full-time equivalents.

* *Branch Library Staffing Pattern: Certain U.S. Cities Over 100,000 Population* (10 p. March 1960), and *Branch Library Staffing Pattern: Certain California Cities Over 100,000 Population* (6th ed., Mar. 1960, 4 p.). Compiled by San Diego (Cal.) Public Library. Data are not reported for all branches of all the cities included.

Table 24-2. Number of Branches and Their Book Stocks of a Sample of Public Libraries.*

Population size group	No. of libraries	No. of branches	No. of Books in Branch Libraries		
			Median size group	Modal size group	No. of branches
100,000 or over	7 (11%)	92 (36%)	6,001-7,000	10,000-20,000	57
50,000-99,999	14 (23%)	68 (26%)	4,001-5,000	10,001-20,000	44
Up to 49,999	40 (66%)	97 (38%)	3,001-4,000	2,001-3,000	61
Total	61	257	5,001-6,000	10,001-20,000	162

* Based on a 10% sample of all public libraries in the *American Library Directory* (Bowker, 1960) which turned up 83 libraries with 323 branches. Population data were not given for 22 of the libraries, or book stock totals for 95 of the branches.

If the comparative profitableness of each branch were regularly analyzed, some would be closed, others reorganized, and all put on a competitive basis in regard to economy and efficiency. Table 24-3, taken from a survey at Arlington County, Va., shows how such an analysis may be done, assuming the usual cost figures are being kept by the library.

A branch library, as defined here, should offer a full range of library services and materials. It should have a wide selection of books, vertical file materials, current and back issues of magazines and newspapers, phonograph records, flat pictures, and maps; and it should be able to borrow promptly any materials in the rest of the system. It should offer all the usual circulation services, including reading guidance, for children, high school students and adults. It should have a reference collection of several hundred volumes or more, and answer at least 10,000 adult reference questions a year. It should regularly offer book-centered programs for children and adults, tailored to the interests and needs of its neighborhood, and there should be active cooperation with the schools, social agencies, clubs and organizations in the community. These services are what justify the investment in a branch building, book stock and staff salaries.

To whatever extent money is being devoted to branches too small to give this range of services, to that extent the city-wide distribution of funds is inefficient, because book distribution could be secured at a lower cost and the services of the central library and of the other branches proportionately strengthened for the benefit of all. At 1961 prices, any branch (or other extension agency) whose direct costs (salaries, books, utilities, repairs, etc.) exceed 25 cents per circulation is not an efficient agency. All too often such branches are poorly housed, as in old police stations or in the basement of the city hall, and poorly located, as in school buildings¹³ or near parks or

Table 24-3. Comparative "Arbitrary Service-Unit-Cost" per Branch, 1954-55*

1. Branch	Arlington	Aurora Hills	Cherrydale	Clarendon	Fair- lington	Glen Carlyn	Westover
2. Salaries	\$21,302	\$13,911	\$21,081	\$26,904	\$12,550	\$14,170	\$16,071
3. Janitorial	912	912	912	912	912	912	912
4. Total salaries	22,214	14,823	21,993	27,816	13,462	15,082	16,983
5. Books, \$21,400	3,500	2,200	3,100	4,200	2,700	2,400	3,300
6. Periodicals, \$1,600	280	130	230	330	210	160	260
7. Heat, light, etc.	641	269	703	450	180	187	407
8. Furniture and equipment	86	108	410	976	214	173	—
9. Rental (if any)	3,600	owned	owned	owned	1,920	1,200	1,620
10. Total arbitrary cost	\$30,321	\$17,530	\$26,436	\$33,772	\$18,686	\$19,202	\$22,570
11. Total circulation	128,234	64,866	107,201	148,072	101,977	88,018	121,106
12. Unit cost per circulation	23¢	27¢	25¢	23¢	18¢	22¢	19¢
13. Total adult circulation	76,015	32,840	63,756	85,516	55,374	34,609	59,542
14. Adult nonfiction circulation	33,046	16,406	26,683	46,582	25,565	20,633	24,228
15. Per cent of adult nonfiction to branch circulation	27%	25%	25%	31%	25%	23%	20%
16. Per cent of adult nonfiction to adult circulation	43%	50%	42%	54%	46%	60%	41%

* Based on Table 4, in Joseph L. Wheeler, *Report of a Survey of the Department of Libraries, with Recommended Building Program*, 60 p., 1956. Arlington County, Va. Issued by County Manager.

Notes. The library keeps careful records of all expenditures for the system by budget items; for major items it keeps them by branches. The time consumed to segregate other cost items per individual branch would be too costly to be worthwhile. For example, the headquarters costs for overhead services benefiting all branches include supervision, ordering, cataloging and processing, central equipment, deliveries, supplies, etc., so they are omitted here. Thus line 10 is an "arbitrary," not actual, total branch cost. By dividing this "arbitrary total" cost by circulation at each branch, all the branches are put on a fair equal comparative basis, and one can judge the profitability of each.

cemeteries; often a complete change of branch housing and organization would double the return from the investment.

Location of Branches

This brings up a key factor: the branch must be located in a center of pedestrian traffic, as the neighborhood shopping center. Sheer size of building or of book stock can be negated by an unfavorable location, and branches smaller than indicated above can reach and exceed 75,000 circulation a year if well located. In the latter case, however, the small size of quarters, book stock and staff will hinder the development of the branch as a library service agency. Book distribution agencies should be well located too, but the greater investment in service branches will only be justified if the agency in question is located at a point where thousands of people tend to congregate. A library service branch should be at an intersection where an alert and aggressive businessman would want to place a store. By these standards such a branch could be expected to serve 30,000 people or more and in general could afford to be three or four miles away from any other library service agency. These profitable branches might be supplemented by one or more book distribution points, so that children too small to go to the large branch could secure books from their nearby school, at a book-mobile stop or from a deposit station or other such collection. In a day of almost universal automobile travel, to limit public library branches to the distance which the smallest child can travel is to restrict the size of branches while increasing their number, and to incur high unit costs of operation. The large library service branch is too valuable to adults to be sacrificed for the convenience of children, especially as the growth of school libraries helps to meet their most urgent school needs.

The location of a library service branch is important; so in time is its relocation. Population shifts will inevitably occur and sometimes very quickly. The library must respond to these changes as well as it can, certainly by establishing new agencies in areas which are growing to 30,000 population or more, and at newly developing centers of pedestrian traffic. Conversely branches with declining population and service may well be closed if they are not profitable even as distributing branches, and the building sold, rented or used for storage. Undoubtedly, not enough public library branches are sold or closed, especially those built long ago and in the older parts of town. The resistance of most communities to the threatened loss of a branch library may reflect the popular estimate of the library's value, but more likely only neighborhood pride. It is hard to use an old branch library building; some libraries are therefore designing and constructing new branches so the buildings can be easily converted to commercial use if ever the library were moved.¹⁶

ORGANIZATION OF A BRANCH SYSTEM

When a city is large enough to have six or more branches, they involve enough cost and personnel and traffic to be considered in terms of a system, and need a branch or extension division head. Two main questions are involved in the organization of a branch system. One concerns the relationship between the branch librarians on the one hand and the chief librarian and other supervisory personnel on the other. The second question deals with the extent to which branches shall function on their own, or follow uniform practices set down for the whole system. Both questions need to be considered in the light of the distinction made between book distribution agencies and library service branches.

In any library with no more than five large branches, and that would include most libraries serving less than 300,000 population, a branch supervisor is not needed. The branch heads should report to the librarian, or at least to the assistant librarian. In turn the head of a service branch could be administratively responsible for any small branches, deposit collections, school service or even whole bookmobiles in his general section of the city. This regional branch pattern has some advantages in large urban areas and in far-spread county and multi-county library units. In cities of 300,00 and upward, or in systems that extend for some miles, it could apply both to general supervision of the work of the smaller units, and perhaps also to the filling of their more elementary book needs as well as to the loan of staff from the large branch to cover emergency periods, vacations, etc.¹⁷ It is argued by some that unity and closer feeling are engendered among staff members working in the same geographic region, giving better operating results than does central control from one point for all extension agencies, or all branches, or even all small branches.

The validity and economy of this decentralization is questioned by others. They hold that the regional or intermediary branch is a sensible device only in metropolitan cities of over 700,000 population and with twenty or more branches. One Los Angeles city branch, for example, lends 800,000 books a year. With the easy transportation of today it would ordinarily save substantially on book purchases and on paperwork and take no longer for requests to be made directly to central and for deliveries to be made direct from central to the customer's distributing point. In any good system, reference inquiries that cannot be filled at one agency should be mailed or sent in overnight to be looked up at central the next morning and the answer sent out by noon or afternoon to the agency. Only at central can the best reference service and variety of books be found. To shunt these requests and materials to or through an intermediate point appears to gain little in economy or promptness, but on the contrary slows things down. If there are two or three such intermediary branches the costs for

materials and extra paperwork is excessive, for there will be some requests that still must be passed on to central.

Between the large branches and the central library, each with its own well-developed program of activities and with some if not substantial differences in clientele and community, the relationship needed is *not* that between a branch librarian who is a generalist and a head of branches who is also a generalist. Instead the branch librarians need to have ready access to the policy-setting level of the librarian, and to the technical and subject skills of the heads of the special departments at the main library, e.g., audio-visual, cataloging, children's work and subject-informational help, and to all their materials. A branch library large enough to circulate at least 75,000 books a year and to offer the range of services indicated above will need to have as its head a person of ability and intelligence. Such persons should then be free and encouraged to use their own best thinking in the development of library service in the community, adapted to the differences between neighborhoods sure to be found in an area large enough to have regional branches. Big business has faced this sort of problem often, and the weight of experience is that branch units above a certain size should be given the necessary flexibility to meet local conditions and then be judged on results achieved. To secure such local flexibility and adaptation, the supervisors of the major system-wide departments in the library should develop and exercise a continual and genuine interest in and responsibility for advising and assisting the branches (e.g., in developing branch library reference service), in providing them what they need in special resources and personnel (e.g., a better-than-average children's storyteller to serve in this capacity on different days in different agencies), and in stimulating public awareness and use of the available services of the branches.

What Shall Be Centralized?

The second organizational question is: which activities shall be centralized? Evidently many activities must be centralized to secure the advantages of economy and efficiency in handling a large volume of like units and when there is no obvious reason to decentralize them. Thus book ordering and cataloging are usually centralized for all agencies,¹⁸ though book selection (as discussed in Chapter 27) should be and commonly is decentralized. Necessary differences in treatment of materials for different agencies can be handled at central, such as traditional cataloging of adult and juvenile books, or using simpler subject headings for a small branch than for a large one. It would be impractical for the staffs of even large branches to catalog their own books separately and to duplicate bibliographical tools and office machines, only to have a resulting product which would be difficult to transfer or interchange because of inevitable small differences in classifica-

tion numbers and cataloging details. The purchasing of equipment and supplies, the preparation of booklists and other publications, and many other functions are obviously better centralized.

But it is equally clear that in some areas of operation the decision if not also the work should be handled at the branch level. Though the library system may make available only a limited range of choices, the branch head should be free to decide within those limits and in line with his own thinking what he wants or needs for the provision of library service in his community, as in the selection of books, equipment and supplies. Branch flexibility and autonomy are especially fruitful for reader services. Thus, it would be unwise to lay down for all branches a uniform pattern such as for book promotion or adult film showings; what might be a great success in one neighborhood would be a failure in another. Uniformity should not be sought for its own sake but only for other results clearly to be gained and more desirable than the results of decentralization. And where it doesn't matter to other agencies what is done in one branch, the latter should be free to make its own decision, e.g., whether and just how to use reader interest-classification. This allows and encourages experimentation on the part of the individual branches.

There is always a borderline zone of activities which do not obviously belong in the one group or the other, and usually the answer has to be a pragmatic one in the light of available resources and library development. The rebinding of books should clearly be centralized but how about book repair? Circulation rules (such as length of loan period) should be standardized, but how to discover whether to centralize the processing of overdue notices? Pamphlets and other vertical file material should certainly be selected by the branches, but should they not be ordered, or requested if free, and subject-headed by central to save all this work at several agencies? An argument often used to justify decentralizing such functions is that some "busy work" is needed for desk assistants. A busy, well-supervised branch will not lack work for each desk assistant, and an agency which needs such work to keep its staff busy should be critically reviewed. The two great advantages of centralization are (1) that specialization breeds competence; and (2) that sufficient volume will justify the use of machinery. In general whatever can be done as well or better and in less time at a central location should be so handled, in order to release the branch personnel to serve patrons. In particular, with millions of Americans moving each year from one house to another within the same county, and with libraries trying to make it easier for people to use two or more branches or libraries interchangeably, readers should not be confronted with varying practices in several branches of the same system, especially in regard to registration, overdues, loan periods, renewal privileges, etc.

Any branch system needs three simple administrative devices. One is frequent meetings of branch librarians to exchange views, seek assistance,

receive information and keep up-to-date. This should be supplemented by a staff bulletin or notices, and a procedures manual. The second device is that of a fluid collection of books on which branches may draw for temporary or long-term use and to which they can easily transfer books no longer needed at a given agency but too valuable or useful to be discarded. Such a pool can be used to check requests for rebinding or for purchase of replacement copies, and it should include some provision for central assistance to all agencies in filling reserves. An alternative to such a branch book pool, and almost as often found, is branch use of the general central collection, perhaps with some extra copies of new books for branch use and with branch withdrawals going into a central pool of withdrawals and duplicate gifts.¹⁹ The third device is a truck pick-up and delivery system or arrangement with a local delivery company, for making daily rounds if possible, or at least every other day, to each branch, large or small. This assumes that a reader's needs for materials will be taken seriously enough, especially for reference questions, to give him prompt service.

RUNNING A BRANCH

The Mission of a Branch

The mission of a branch library is to give as much and as good service to as many citizens in its area as possible. In small branches this is likely to consist mainly of lending books and a high proportion of fiction, with some elementary reference work and reading guidance. In the large branch, the service so given will almost certainly include the loan of a larger proportion of adult nonfiction and other special materials, reference help and reading guidance on the intermediate level of difficulty or even the advanced level, and an active program of school visiting, cooperation with community organizations, and activity programs within the branch for children, young people and adults. While no branch can offer the range and depth of materials and services available at the main library, larger branches will offer them on as large a scale as the demands and the budget will warrant, and with the convenience and ease of use possible in a reader's neighborhood without going to central. By virtue of this very resemblance in scope if not of scale of functions, the branch library has as its mission much the same goal as that of the library as a whole, viz., to penetrate its community and relate books and library service to the life interests of people.

The branch librarian's first main job is to become a specialist in the community served by his agency. Just as subject departments at the central library need staff members who are specialists in the literature of those subjects, so the branches need librarians informed on the nature of their particular community and aware of its social relationships and developments, be it rural, suburban, slum or whatever. It is important for the branch

librarian, at least of a library service branch, to attend P. T. A. meetings and to know what the businessmen's association is doing, without sacrificing his management and supervising functions. Routine processes in the branch should be left to an assistant, though often the librarian permits these routines, including purely clerical work, to prevent him from making adequate community contacts. A branch librarian may profitably spend a third of his time out in the community and half his time on real administrative functions including supervision.

A second role of the librarian of a large branch is that of administrator. He should plan, direct, receive reports, supervise his colleagues and make evaluations. And he should leave a little time to think and study. For he is paid to manage the branch and make it flourish. Others on the staff, down to and including part-time pages, can do the work which needs to be done, but the branch librarian has to make the decisions and to make wise ones. He has to keep in touch with the librarian and other supervisory personnel, with the other branches and the housekeeping agencies of the system, with his assistants and with the personnel of the agencies whose work he supervises. Not only are all the usual administrative functions involved, such as those of personnel administration, public relations, supervision and development, but he has responsibility for the library building and for the public service program. The physical separation from the rest of the library inevitably throws on the branch librarian a greater responsibility than is borne by a department head at central library, to meet emergencies, to make decisions and to interpret established policies. Small wonder is it that outstanding branch librarians are hard to find, and when found they tend to be promoted.

The Administration of a Branch

Chapters 15 and 16 discuss many of the branch librarian's duties as manager and supervisor. Two main facts of the administration of a branch library warrant special mention here. One is the organization of assignments and the responsibility for staff supervision and development; the other is the handling of routine work and of special activities. Part of the challenge of branch librarianship is that in none of these areas is there a firmly established or satisfactory pattern. As in all of library work, intelligent persons with outgoing personality will be most effective. Handling a crowd of children or high school students in a branch is no job for a person who does not like his work.

In a branch of five or six staff members, including two or three professionals,²⁰ the usual division is that one librarian is made responsible for children's work and another for adult work, with special attention to informational service. The branch librarian may exempt himself or assign someone specifically to work with young adults. The librarians so assigned will

usually select the new books for the branch in their fields, review the present collection from time to time, advise readers of the age level they serve, develop their skills and materials to answer reference questions, and probably plan special activities for patrons, subject to the approval of the branch librarian. One constant danger is for too few to try to cover too many activities. The librarians in the branches who specialize in these aspects of the work will meet with the library system supervisor or coordinator of work with children, young people or adults, to benefit by their technical advice and assistance. Where the branch librarian is especially active outside the library, the responsibility for internal supervision of the branch staff and of the services given in his branch to its public may be assigned to the assistant branch librarian; he would plan work schedules and vacation schedules, sign requisitions for supplies, assist any other staff member in need of help, see that the necessary routine work is done correctly and on time, train new assistants, etc.

In a branch lending each year 100,000 books or more, three trained and three untrained assistants, aided by even a modern mechanical or simplified charging system, can hardly keep up with the volume of business. This calls for considerable skill in supervision. The branch librarian needs ability in selecting new assistants, in assessing their capabilities and shortcomings, and in finding appropriate methods of employee motivation. Supervision in a small branch, where only two people work and side by side, is different from supervision in a large branch where contacts are less frequent and relations more formal. In addition, the trained assistants need to be developed and supervised to give elementary reference service and reading guidance for each of the three main age groups, as when they are on duty alone at mealtime or in case of illness or other emergency. Experienced but untrained library assistants should be able to file branch catalog cards and do preliminary weeding of pamphlets and books. In a branch so small as to have only one or two staff members, there is unfortunately not likely to be a professional librarian, and each person has to be instructed as well as possible to attempt all the jobs at the agency, a risky and generally a frustrating venture.

Attention to Major Functions

The branch librarian has not only to assign someone to be responsible in juvenile, young adult and adult readers' service and material. He has also to see that each aspect is being adequately covered and, if not, that the staff shall not spread its efforts any thinner. A branch librarian needs to develop adult reference services (which will be used also by school students), and to insist on enough trained reference workers to meet reader demands. The reference collection should be strong and up-to-date, including plentiful vertical file material. In 1949, twenty-six branches of the

Enoch Pratt Free Library had from three to eight four-tray vertical file cases each, despite frequent drastic weeding; the Pimlico Branch opened later with nine cases and added more, all heavily used.

The routine work of any branch, as in the whole system, needs to be done well, i.e., accurately, rapidly, promptly, and to be continually reviewed in the interests of simplification. If not done well, much of it has to be done over again; books misshelved will require more frequent reading of the shelves. It needs to be done according to established procedure, which has its reasons and ought to have been carefully thought out, e.g., one objective of borrower registration is to detect nonresidents or patrons who owe books or fines. A procedure manual,²¹ good introductory training and systematic follow-up are all indicated. Specializing as it does in service, a branch library has numerous repetitive operations, resulting from reader request. Returned books must be shelved promptly, new magazines will be wanted the day received, borrower registrations must be ready for the next branch delivery. Routines should be regularly scrutinized to find simplifications; possibly something more can be transferred to the large branch or to central.

Just as its community changes and becomes interested in new subjects, so the branch library staff must try to identify the topics of major concern as they appear, and have books and appropriate library services ready to meet them. Activity programs, booklists, special exhibits, publicity, deposit collections to go to locations outside the branch, reserve book shelves, better service to inquirers, more books on certain subjects—all these must be thought through, adapted and completed in whatever staff time can be found, and then only to be succeeded by new programs and new activities, as the seasons change, the school assignments come and go, the developments on the national and international front find repercussions on the local scene, the forces and agencies in the local community make themselves felt and the branch library itself asserts a role of leadership.

When properly located, large enough to offer a range of services, and staffed by able and competent employees, a large branch library is a vigorous and effective service agency. Just as there is desirably only one central library in a community, so there is need and place for only a few large library service branches. Of the various possible supplementary book distributing agencies on the modern scene, the most important is the bookmobile.

BOOKMOBILES AND OTHER EXTENSION AGENCIES

Construction of Bookmobiles

Bringing books to people by bookmobile is the most dramatic and colorful and evidently the most efficient and economical type of everyday pub-

lic library service. Its history goes back to horse-drawn book wagons around 1900. Rapid development of the automobile resulted by the 1920's in a number of motor vehicles converted from other uses for library purposes, usually in rural areas. Specially designed and commercially produced bookmobiles did not come into use in any large number until after World War II. By 1950 there were 603; and by 1956, 880.²² Today there must be 1,200 at least, encouraged by Federal funds from the 1956 Library Services Act. Occasionally boats, railroad cars, streetcars and other vehicles have been used for book transportation.

Bookmobiles are generally self-propelled and equipped with shelves built into the sides of the body. A few are of the house trailer type, or of the van type, and pulled by a semi-attached tractor. Though trailers have their own special advantages, the self-contained unit has greater flexibility and ease of operation. Bookmobiles range in size from a panel truck of a ton or less, costing about \$2,500 and capable of carrying only several hundred books, to large vehicles built on a bus chassis, costing perhaps \$20,000 and carrying 4,000 books or more. A popular model but with a book capacity of only 1,600 volumes cost \$7,500 in 1959. It is doubtful whether so small a model should be used. There are several companies in the country which now sell finished bookmobiles. Local firms which construct specialized truck bodies can also turn out an acceptable bookmobile, and the St. Louis County (Missouri) Public Library has built some of its own bookmobiles. In all cases a truck or bus chassis is purchased, a body of special design is added, and shelves, heater and other equipment are added separately.

Bookmobile shelves are desirably slanted a few degrees, and with book ends this is usually enough to keep the books from falling; for rough roads, a center strip of rubber can be added. The usual pattern today is to build the shelves on the inside of the vehicle, and to provide heat, artificial light and even air-conditioning. Some vehicles carry their own electric generators (500 to 10,000 watt capacity) to provide heat and power for these uses and for photographic charging, a loud-speaker system and other devices. Other vehicles get the necessary power by connecting a cable to prearranged power outlets at station stops. The simplest and most economical way is to use bottled gas for heat, dispense with air-conditioning or photographic charging and operate ceiling lights from an oversize storage battery. However, the trend is toward larger and more nearly self-sufficient vehicles, carrying ever more books, and serving both urban and rural areas.

Policies of Bookmobile Operation

We have no firm factual basis for a "breaking point" of demonstrated economy or wastefulness as to bookmobile service, but sufficient experience is available to permit generalizing on the more usual policies of bookmobile

operation. The same principle of operating economy holds for too small bookmobiles as for too small independent village libraries and too small branches of city or regional systems. The bookmobile should be considered as better and more economical than a small branch. A building means several times as much capital investment plus custodial care. The mobile stock of books is constantly changing and gives readers a greater variety. The turnover of books is high in contrast to costly stocks of books standing comparatively idle on the shelves of small branches. The per-circulation book and salary cost is cut to a third or a fourth that in the typical small branch.

"The economics of bookmobiles" suggest (1) that they should have a capacity of 3,000 to 4,000 volumes, and that none be undertaken with space for less than 2,500; (2) that they be planned and operated to serve as many adults as children and to lend as many adult books as children's; (3) that school stops and the mass movement of children through the bus at the rate of one a minute no longer be acceptable bookmobile service; (4) that the investment in equipment, stock and salaries be better capitalized on by an all-afternoon and evening schedule of stops, at fortnightly intervals, at points where adults can and will visit the bookmobile; (5) that a trained person be present at all bookmobile stops, and staff schedules adjusted for this 1-9 P.M. duty; (6) that every bookmobile carry materials to render quick everyday reference service, e.g., *Collier's Encyclopedia*, *World Book*, *World Almanac*, *Reader's Guide*, a few handbooks and two vertical file trays of informational pamphlets, and (7) that the substantial type of library service be emphasized and publicized. With these shifts in emphasis, the worth of our bookmobiles to society would be greatly stepped up.

To date the bookmobile has proven it can be an effective and economical book distributing agency. Few bookmobiles answer many reference questions, or carry more than a half-dozen elementary reference tools. While some argue that reference service is impractical on bookmobiles, Schenk cites cases where it is substantial and deeply appreciated.²³ Typically bookmobiles carry only books, with perhaps a few pamphlets, current magazines or phonograph records. In most cases there is no card catalog on the vehicle, and probably none is needed. Patrons can register for library cards and get started on borrowing. In most cases at present the bookmobile staff consists of a bookmobile librarian (who is likely not to be a professional librarian) and a clerk-driver; often the librarian works alone and drives the vehicle too. On the other hand many a large bookmobile carries a staff of three to five persons, including one or two professionals, and two crews can operate it sixty to seventy-five hours a week. The surprising thing in most cases (and a matter calling for rectification) is how few hours the investment in a bookmobile is actually used for public service, rather than how many.²⁴

Bookmobile service to schools can easily be developed to lead to impressive circulations. School librarians and public librarians have argued re-

peatedly about this. It appears that bookmobile service to schools may be better than no library service but it is a poor substitute for a library in the school. Bookmobile service supplied free by the public library is naturally preferred by many school authorities to a school library provided at their expense. Even without servicing schools, public library bookmobile circulation is heavily juvenile.²⁵ It would seem desirable, therefore, that bookmobile service be given first at adult community stops and only secondarily if at all to schools, and that special efforts be made to stimulate and develop adult use. And if bookmobile service is to be given to schools, a separate vehicle should be used for this purpose alone, and it seems logical that it be purchased by the school system.²⁶ Community stops are likely to be most worthwhile in the afternoons and evenings and on Saturdays; this calls for readjustment of staff schedules to insure enough professionals to cover five or six evenings a week. Adherence to a regular schedule is a prime necessity, and the current schedule should be changed as seldom as possible, at most only twice a year, for the summer months and for the school year. For adult or community stops, favored locations are in residential areas of average to high density, neighborhood store areas, and in some cases the giant shopping centers, housing projects or other pedestrian centers.

Like branches, bookmobiles too have a point of optimum economic operation. Briefly it is that no stop should be continued if after reasonable trial it fails to result in a rate of circulation of about a book a minute. Assuming the bookmobile is open for use around thirty hours a week, this will result in an annual circulation of about 90,000 books a year, and about half of this should be adult books.²⁷ At this rate, the cost of a bookmobile's operation per circulation compares with that of a branch library with a circulation of say 60,000 books a year. This is so because the useful life of a bookmobile is not much more than twelve to fifteen years, and both its depreciation and variable costs (gasoline, repairs, etc.) tend to be higher than for a fixed branch. Many bookmobiles have total annual circulations well above 100,000 books a year and as much as 200,000 or more, and without emphasizing service to schools. The mean average total circulation of all 880 bookmobiles in 1956 was only 62,000, at that almost half again as much as the average of the 603 vehicles reported in 1950. Just as small independent libraries tend to be uneconomic and inefficient, and as small branches tend not to be worthwhile, so small bookmobiles are often operated at a high unit cost. Any bookmobile with direct costs (salaries, books, depreciation, repairs, etc.) of over 25 cents per circulation (at 1961 prices) should be critically reviewed.

The great flexibility of the bookmobile should be utilized always by seeking service stops located most conveniently for the largest number of people. Stops which fail to generate the necessary volume of circulation might be reduced in length or be visited less often; nearly half of all bookmobiles

in 1956 had fewer than fifty stops in all and returned to each stop in one to three weeks²⁸ or an average of two hours every two weeks. One of the great advantages of the bookmobile is that it can be used to give service quickly, as in the case of annexed territory or a mushrooming suburb; by the same token it can be used to estimate the likelihood of success of a branch in alternative possible locations. Generally if a bookmobile is used to give service for more than one day at a given stop (very unusual), a trailer-type unit would be preferable to a self-contained mobile one. Some libraries exclude bookmobile stops from the service area of any branch, but other libraries have found that the book-distributing service of bookmobiles can be used to advantage in supplementing a branch in areas cut off from it by heavy traffic or natural barriers, and especially in service to children and the general reading of adults.

Administrative Considerations of Bookmobile Operation

The use of a bookmobile introduces a whole new set of administrative considerations other than those usually met in other aspects of public library operation.²⁹ The maintenance and repair of a bookmobile, for example, is not only a technical matter but one which brooks no delay. If possible, financial provision should be made for accumulating money to replace a given vehicle, since its relatively short life requires some such depreciation allowance. Adequate housing of the vehicle at a desirable location can do much to help or hinder the efficient operation of the unit. The desirable volume of book circulation on a bookmobile makes it necessary to perform centrally as much of the technical and routine work as possible, as of reserves and overdues. And selecting the bookmobile librarian poses special problems, in finding someone with the necessary physical stamina, the ability to meet patrons easily, and sufficient knowledge and love of books to operate without a card catalog. For each bookmobile librarian or driver, there should be another staff member trained and available in case of need. Working out the exact schedule is a minor art, involving travel time, allowance for meals for the staff, prevailing weather conditions, the most desirable route to follow (in view of hairpin turns, weight loads, and height limits), parking facilities at each stop, time for mechanical servicing of the vehicle, etc.

The bookmobile is in itself a natural medium of library publicity, but it poses some special problems. In some cities, bookmobile stops are marked by a metal sign on a pole or by a poster. When weather or other conditions interrupt the schedule, there should be some way of getting word to the area so that people do not wait in vain, and bookmobile books due that day should be accepted at any library agency, be automatically renewed or be able to be left at some store or home near the stop and be picked up later. A printed or mimeographed schedule of bookmobile stops is neces-

sary and should be given wide distribution, perhaps via radio, television and the newspapers.

One of the great advantages of the bookmobile, over other extension agencies of book distribution, is that its book stock, though at best no larger than that of a small branch, is able to be renewed daily if necessary, by drawing on the larger book stock at headquarters. Some libraries have created a special book collection for the bookmobile; though this is perhaps several times larger than the capacity of the vehicle, it still tends to set narrower limitations than are possible and desirable. The bookmobile should get new books currently but it should also be able to draw on as large a basic book stock as possible, so as to be able to change its collection gradually but continuously with a minimum of paperwork. This is especially important if a serious bid is to be made for adult use of nonfiction books. In such a case, a bookmobile should have at any one time no more than one-fourth of its books juvenile and no more than another fourth adult fiction.³⁰ These ratios, plus an ever-changing book collection, and provision for supplying any desired title on special request, make bookmobile service a truly stimulating and effective book distributing agency. Crowded conditions and limited book capacity make it desirable that the charging system be one which eliminates slipping and makes returned books readily available for reuse.³¹ By the same token the level of economic operation of a bookmobile (an average of one book circulated every minute of public service time, or about 90,000 circulation a year and half of these adult) is not likely to be reached by a vehicle with a book capacity below 2,500 volumes.

OTHER EXTENSION AGENCIES

Stations constitute the group of extension agencies most often found, and they are usually defined as small collections of books made available in quarters not the property of the library, and either self-serviced or cared for by volunteers or by occasional visits of a staff member. Thus there are library stations in hospitals, prisons and other institutions, in neighborhood stores and even in private homes. By far the most common type of station is the collection of public library books in schools. Precise definitions are not available, and practice undoubtedly varies widely. It has been estimated that there were 28,000 public library stations in 1950;³² but in 1956, when classroom collections of books were no longer counted, the number of stations fell to 5,125 or not even one for each of the 6,249 libraries reporting.³³ The California State Library defines a station to include, among other types, a small branch (less than 1,400 square feet, less than 7,000 volumes, less than two full-time staff members, etc.); in 1958-59, the 213

California public libraries reported 997 community stations and 1,048 school stations but only 242 branches.⁸⁴

Stations are found in and are useful to both large and small libraries, and constitute the oldest and still the least expensive form of public library extension, partly because so little staff time is involved. In the first quarter of this century especially, public libraries experimented with stations in a variety of locations, as in factories, and with forms, as delivery stations where specifically requested titles were left for a reader. The depression of the 1930's wiped out many and the rise of bookmobiles has displaced others in more recent years. The basic difficulties with the idea of stations are that typically only a small number of books are available at any one location (up to about two hundred or so), and that there is little or no staff assistance. The bookmobile corrects both of these limitations, with only one main counter-limitation, viz., the limited period of time it is available at any one stop. However, stations too are not always open to readers for any great length of time; some industrial stations, for example, have been open as little as an hour a week. Within these limitations stations still have a role to play, in helping to provide a network of book distributing points where the turnover per book justifies investing the price per book. A modern variation of the station is the booketeria, a self-service collection of several hundred books in a supermarket, operated on the honor system. As far as is known this was pioneered by Stewart W. Smith in Lincoln, Neb., about 1947, and has had good results in Nashville, Tenn., Evansville, Ind.,⁸⁵ and Troy, Ohio.

Stations have often been used in hospitals, and stations or small branches in housing projects. This is the sort of extension service to special groups which is not usually profitable or desirable for a public library. A bookmobile stop would be preferable, or if the housing project and its neighborhood could produce a circulation of 75,000 a branch would be justified. Library service to patients is often given by Red Cross Gray Ladies or other volunteer groups; it is as much a responsibility of the hospital administration as are other patient services and as is library service for the medical staff. The public library has the residual responsibility to serve these as well as all other citizens, but extension work should not be focused on the needs of special groups—usually of a captive audience type—at least not until the needs of the normal population have been met or unless there is special financial provision for it, as by private endowment. Nor is it a virtue simply to increase the number of points in a given service area at which a public library book may be secured.

The main lesson to be learned from almost seventy-five years of public library extension service is the desirability of limiting the number of agencies or devices to those able to display many books, handle a large volume of circulation and a high turnover per book, develop a strong

reference service, provide a variety of other services, and all at a low unit cost.

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13. In 1955 the California State Library adopted the definition of a branch as an agency which was open 5 days a week and had at least 1,400 sq. ft. of space, 7,000 books, and a staff of one full-time professional and one nonprofessional assistant. Thereupon the number of public library branches reported in California dropped 83%, from 775 to 129, mostly in county libraries. See Grace Murray, "'Branches' Is a Dirty Word," *News Notes of California Libraries*. 50: 538-540. Oct. 1955.
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32. *Public Library Statistics*; 1950. *op. cit.* p. 6.

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34. "Directory and Statistics Issue." *News Notes of California Libraries*, 55: 14, 17, 28-29, 36-37, 44-45, and 52-53. Winter 1960.

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CHAPTER 25

Running a Small Library: Summary

The present volume gives less attention than many would wish to special problems of the very large libraries, in order to be more useful to workers in libraries in cities of from 10,000 to 350,000 population. Libraries with less than 10,000 population may feel that various topics have not been discussed specifically enough in their terms.¹⁻⁴ This population size has been chosen arbitrarily; to many persons a small library may mean one which serves as many as 25,000 or 30,000 citizens.⁵

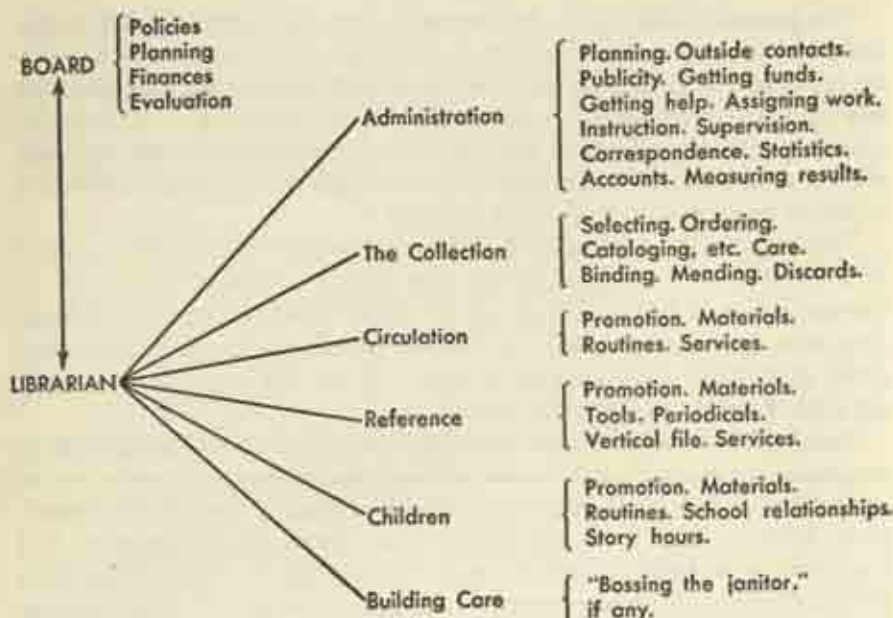
This chapter is a summary of administrative aspects of operating small libraries. The A. L. A.'s Small Libraries Project, initiated by one of the present writers in 1958 and financed by a grant from the Council on Library Resources, got underway May 1, 1961. It should produce a badly needed series of detailed informational leaflets, 250 to 300 pages, for the 6,000 libraries of under 10,000 population.⁶

Two facts have become clear. Independently the small individual libraries can never achieve such full, varied, efficient and economical service to the public, even when given advisory and book services by their state commissions, as they could by joining larger regional units. As integral parts of a large system they can have closer access to materials far beyond their own potential means; many processes can be centrally managed more economically and efficiently, releasing valuable time for direct local service to readers; each little library can draw more frequently and fully than at present on the strength which comes only from a corps of full-time trained specialists. By frequent visits the latter can pay attention to administration, organization, supervision, book selection, preparation, reference work, work with children, young people and adults, and the whole array of techniques. Each aspect of each small-town and village library would greatly benefit. Such regional or cooperative systems are now in successful operation in many states, and are rapidly increasing, stimulated by supplementary funds under the Federal Library Services Act.

The other clear point: responsibility for internal good management has always to continue inside the small local library, as in the branches of a

large city system. The small library cannot profitably go it alone, but it may constantly grow more efficient. There is great satisfaction in working with a small clientele in a small community or neighborhood; acquaintance and understanding between staff and readers can be close indeed. The ineffectiveness of small libraries stems largely from failure to search for and appoint the most competent person available, as total local budgets below \$6,000 do not permit a full-time trained librarian unless the time and salary can be divided among two or three towns. Good appointments are more likely under central direction from a regional head.

Diagram 25-1. The Administrative Function in the One-Person Library



POLICIES

Librarian and board in a small community have to conceive of their library as a dynamic agency for spreading the use of print into every home, making each citizen aware of the ways in which printed information can serve him. The library should lead and not be led in interpreting its role in the community, as an agent of enlightenment and a counter-influence against social, racial, religious and economic prejudices and intolerance. More small libraries need to draw more adults into the circle of users, especially to promote nonfiction use, including how-to books in many fields.

Some notable increases in adult nonfiction use have resulted from the librarian's stressing it.⁷

Library heads in communities of less than 10,000 have to arrive at decisions as to what they shall try to do, and how to achieve such goals and standards as are discussed in Chapters 7 and 8, and the following:

1. Attaining \$3 to \$5 per capita minimum support, or the local share of that support as member of a regional system.
2. A staff of at least one full-timer (or equivalent) per 2,000 population, plus building care staff, which should be kept at not over one-sixth of total personnel.
3. Salaries and wages, such as per-hour pay, in line with those paid in other outstanding libraries.
4. At least one-third of the staff, not counting janitorial, should be professionally trained, or have had some college education.
5. Resourcefulness in getting and training student, volunteer and other part-time help for clerical work in numerous activities.
6. Circulation of eight or nine per capita, more than half of which to be adult, with adult nonfiction at least 50 per cent of adult circulation.
7. At least 30-35 per cent of total budget spent on books and materials, and not less than one-third of the book budget to be spent on adult nonfiction, and one-third on juvenile books.
8. Informational materials and services given prime attention to attain at least one-half informational and reference questions per capita per year (not counting directional questions or finding titles asked by readers).
9. Prompt local response and follow-up on informational requests; requests promptly transmitted to county, regional or state headquarters for materials not in the local library, and readers notified or handed their material within five or six days of requesting it.
10. Continuing program of public relations and publicity to keep the library story always in the public mind, and to encourage greater use by individuals.
11. Constant attention to economy: (a) not starting new activities unless essential and profitable to the library's main purpose; (b) omitting, reducing or simplifying all possible routines and paperwork; making every hour count in each person's daily work.

THE LIBRARY BOARD

The librarian in a small town will wish that the board be as effective as possible. Working through the chairman, he should keep the group promptly informed at monthly meetings as to developments—not only statistics as to number of books lent in the three major categories, and number of questions looked up, but on all aspects of library organization and staff, collections, services, expenditures; the problems, trends, public reactions.

The librarian will encourage full attendance at board meetings. Many

libraries would profit by a decrease in the number of trustees, from unwieldy groups such as fifteen or more to a workable active five or seven, and then capitalizing on the special interests and abilities of each trustee to further some aspect of library progress.

Trustees and librarian will formulate a statement of library policies, covering as many aspects of the work as possible, including the points just recited above and the question of joining a regional system; also, points on which public misunderstanding may be foreseen.⁸ Because many small libraries cannot afford a full-time trained librarian, some trustees may, as volunteers, be drawn into the internal routines and services; their responsibilities as related to the librarian's should be discussed and defined in memoranda prepared each year when there is a change in personnel.

Officially responsible for financing, trustees should be continually devising means to secure public support increasing to \$3 per capita or more. They should promote circulation and reference service. They have to evaluate the year's progress, the effectiveness of the librarian. They will support the librarian in seeing that each staff member is developed and the staff strengthened each year. This means dropping ineffectual workers. The A. L. A. Standards are a great help in planning and measuring library operations.⁹ Others are offered in Chapter 8 of the present volume.

THE LIBRARIAN'S VARIED WORK

Planning what shall be attempted for the coming year, the coming month, the day ahead puts the librarian in control of library developments, in contrast to letting things run along as they have run, day by day. It signifies weak administration to permit circumstances and various persons to push the library around, or dictate policies, decisions, appointments. If the librarian, whether trained or untrained, is not a pusher, not even a hard worker, but only a job holder, a new librarian should be found. A good education and knowledge of subjects and books underlie good service.

Citizens are glad to cooperate in publicity, e.g., lending store window space for exhibits that can be prepared by high school students or volunteers. News stories can often be delegated to others to prepare if the librarian will choose the subject, outline the story and have the data ready. The librarian's contacts with trustees and leading citizens should, among other things, lead to their active help in getting better library financing.^{10, 11}

The librarian, in consultation with the trustees, will see that each employee is chosen for merit only, choosing between two or three promising candidates. Resourceful librarians can attract intelligent, interested part-time students and volunteers to help on a variety of clerical routines and special tasks, e.g., arranging magazines and books, gathering, clipping and

arranging news items, articles and pamphlets on local history, telling stories.¹²

The librarian has to give instructions to each worker, as teacher and supervisor. The supervisory function is vital for good results, as discussed in Chapter 16.

Statistics and accounts should be kept at a minimum, as suggested in Chapters 31 and 32. Statistics suggested: juvenile, adult fiction, adult non-fiction circulation; number of reference questions looked up; and number of books added, withdrawn and in the collection.

The Collection of Materials

A trained librarian will take major responsibility for book selection, referring debatable questions to the trustees, but using the knowledge of the staff in checking and discussing. Book orders should be placed at least once a month with a reliable library jobber who can give one-third discount, and with prompt deliveries. Readers should get their new books while they are being advertised and not after months of delay. Minimum simplified cataloging and classifying, possibly by use of Wilson printed cards (Library of Congress cards generally require changes and are too full of detail for small libraries and involve delay as well as cost) should be planned and laid out, possibly on a movable work board, so it can be interrupted without having to put away and get out materials and equipment. Even little village libraries need a good typewriter, perhaps a rebuilt at \$50 or so. A binding allotment should be set, and books sent to a certified library bindery quarterly. An adept volunteer may do mending, following instructions available from library supply companies. These subjects relating to the collections are discussed in Chapters 27, 28, 29.

Circulation

Promotion is always essential for circulating nonfiction. Fiction should be limited to worthy titles. Paperbacks may relieve demands for mysteries and westerns, and many libraries ask their readers to donate their read copies. An active rental collection of duplicate copies (see Chapter 17) helps many libraries to meet demands for current fiction. The small library does not find expensive charging equipment profitable compared to the Wayne County charging system, an improvement on the old-fashioned book-card system, with self-charging, i.e., the reader writes his name and address on the book card and the assistant stamps date on date slip, book card and borrower's card if one is used; an identification card may be sufficient.

Reference Service

Even the small library needs to update its high school and its adult encyclopedias every four or five years, alternating their purchase, sticking to the two which most librarians find most useful for everyday reference work—the *World Book* and *Collier's Encyclopedia*. At least the *Abridged Reader's Guide* should be available, the key to 40 or 50 magazines subscribed to in a town of 2,000. In towns of 7,500 to 10,000 the library will take 100 to 125 magazines (using the full *Reader's Guide*). A file of pamphlets, bulletins, clippings on topics in demand, including local history and activities, should be kept up; an intelligent volunteer with some instruction and occasional newspaper recognition may find this a worthwhile interesting community activity. Each reference question should be followed through; sometimes a local citizen can give help or clues to the information, otherwise a larger library or the state commission. This aspect of local and regional or state cooperation is likely to undergo great improvement in the near future.

Service to Children

Someone on the staff needs to have special interest in and knowledge of children's books. Perhaps someone, such as a mother who has reared a family of readers, may be discovered who can lead in this, or serve as storyteller. Somehow any library has to find the way to develop understanding competent help for this important age group. Numerous printed aids and selected booklists are available. Other persons are much concerned that similar special attention be given young adults—the fourteen- to twenty-year group, who use adult books primarily and unfortunately are left to their own devices in most small libraries. Most of all, small libraries need to develop their services to adult readers.

Building Care

In many libraries the janitor is paid as much as the librarian. Trustees should realize that the building is of less importance than the services given in it. In a one-person library, maintenance should be cut to an hour or two a day for the days open, using oil, gas or electric heat, choosing a rapid, conscientious worker, perhaps a competent neighbor.

Debatable Activities

Because few small libraries receive \$3 per capita support, it is held by some that funds accomplish more with more workers available during fewer hours open to the public, than with fewer workers to cover a longer open

schedule. Group and audio-visual programs possible in a large library can be offered in the small library only by diverting time and money from reading and informational services. Few libraries of under 10,000 population feel that they can conscientiously undertake these time- and money-consuming activities.

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CHAPTER 26

Administration of Larger-Area Systems

One of the main goals of American public librarianship has been to provide local public library service to all. Legal provision for public libraries is now more than a century old, yet 15 to 20 per cent of the people still do not have access to a public library organized to serve the area where they live. And over half of the population have local library service which is limited, inadequate and substandard. Nor is this from want of trying. Librarians and friends of libraries have made great efforts to provide complete coverage with at least reasonably good service.^{1, 2, 3, 4} Their efforts have had some measure of success and have provided a valuable fund of experience. Based on this experience greater efforts than ever are being made today to reach the goal.⁵ This brief chapter can only sketch the outline of the problem and of the experience with the major solutions.

The matter is complicated by the wide variations in the geographic size of local government units, in the distribution of population and of wealth, in the legal structure for public libraries in the different states, and in the traditional role of cities and counties in various parts of the country. These variations explain why it is that one pattern, such as county libraries, may be acceptable and successful in California, where counties are large, populous and wealthy, and be unknown in New England, where the county unit of government is weak and little used. The southeastern states have more multi-county libraries than any other part of the country, precisely because there were so few independent local libraries whose interests had to be considered. The result is that no one national pattern has evolved of library service for a larger than local unit.

There are however a few main patterns which can be outlined and their comparative merits and limitations described. First will be discussed a national program of library systems, then the state-wide library systems, the county and multi-county units, and finally the use of such devices as federation, contract service and cooperative arrangements. The chapter closes with a brief comparison of certain administrative aspects of the main types of larger units of library service.

A NATIONAL PROGRAM OF LIBRARY SYSTEMS

The Nature of the Problem

Variations in two main factors make difficult the provision to all Americans of access to local public library service of at least reasonable quality; one is sparseness of population, and the other is the cost of library operation. With relatively few people scattered over a wide territory, as in rural areas, the assessed valuation tends to be low and also therefore the tax support of the library. In addition such sparseness of population means that there will be relatively few patrons of the library and insufficient use of its resources and services to justify more than a bare minimum of development. On the other hand, a library has a relatively high overhead cost for physical quarters and book stock and a relatively high minimum current operating cost if it attempts to provide what might be called service of even reasonable quality. Such overhead and operating costs are more nearly justified as the volume of use goes up and as the total expenditures of the library increase, until the unit cost of library service becomes very small indeed, per unit of use or per person served or per dollar of assessed valuation.

Public libraries were started first in cities, and they still have their main strength there. In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, the state library extension agencies systematically developed and helped organize libraries in every municipality of any size. In many cases libraries were started in communities too small and too poor to support them at all or at a level to produce reasonably good service. The laws necessary to establish libraries in every possible community are still on the books and now plague us by setting no minimum standards in regard to population or financial support. It soon became evident to librarians that rural areas could never organize municipal-type libraries and that many towns were too small to secure adequate library service by independent action. The next obvious step then was to secure laws authorizing county public libraries, and for the last fifty years efforts have continued to organize such. Out of 3,050 counties in this country, there are now about a thousand county or city-county libraries,⁶ and many of them are small, poor and inadequate. There are still some 200 rural counties in which there is no local public library.⁷

The latest main approach and a logical next development, dating roughly from about 1935, has been the creation of multi-county libraries, of which there are now about 200, serving about 500 counties. Though theoretically able to include enough people and enough taxable wealth to justify a public library, a multi-county unit by the same token has to cope with the problems of giving service over a large area and to many small groups of people.

Furthermore, because the county and multi-county library are one step removed from the local community, it has been difficult to persuade voters to approve the organization of such libraries or to provide anything more than minimum tax support. One method of overcoming this difficulty has been to use state aid or other funds for a demonstration for a year or more of what a county or multi-county library could do in a given area, and then to seek continuance of the library by local support.⁸ Not only were such demonstrations never needed to form municipal libraries, but the resulting elections on county and multi-county libraries have been far from uniformly favorable. A much more successful technique for the creation of multi-county libraries has been to secure substantial amounts of state aid for this purpose.

Major Current Needs

Between the use of multi-county libraries with state aid, and of other approaches to be described later, it is at least possible to see how local access to public library service can be provided to all the people of this country. But how to secure reasonably good library service to all is more difficult and will take longer. Yet a third important problem, and one increasing in scope and complexity, is that of securing coordination and of reducing duplication and overlapping between the various independent libraries in the metropolitan centers.⁹ For some years, the great growth of population has been not in the cities themselves but in their suburbs, which typically resist consolidation with each other or with the central city. Indeed one can envisage in time a megalopolis stretching from Massachusetts to North Carolina, and embracing hundreds of different public libraries. While this is a large problem for government generally to solve, and for other functions of government as well as for libraries, it brings out the need for public library service to be planned and coordinated, if not also administered, at a level above that of the smallest political unit.

Thus, for example, students and others with a serious interest in books will go to the best and largest library in the metropolitan area, sometimes to such an extent as to militate against the organization of a library in their own particular community.¹⁰ Nonresident cards are typically inexpensive, and their availability has helped persuade rural people to defeat more than one proposal for a county or multi-county library. Clearly, what is needed is some general plan which will suggest approaches by which to cope with the problems of providing all citizens with library coverage within easy driving distance, of upgrading the quality of library service where it is now below standard, and of securing effective coordination of public library service in metropolitan areas. The outlines of such a plan are now evident.

Those concerned with library development and support must henceforward think of library service in terms of getting materials into the hands of

individuals, and not in terms of little library buildings in communities too small to warrant them, whether these are independent local libraries or too-small branches of a larger system. With present-day auto travel and shopping habits there are few citizens who do not visit frequently towns of over 5,000 population. Except in sparsely populated areas, the creation of any new independent library in a town of smaller size should be not only discouraged but prevented if possible, provided there is a larger unit of library service available. And it is a great question whether even a larger system should establish a branch library in a community of less than 5,000 people; the cost of such a branch is not likely to be matched by the amount and quality of the service it can ever give.

A National Plan for Public Libraries

In various studies over the last twenty years, largely the work of American Library Association committees, a national plan for public libraries has been evolved, with three main concepts—that of library systems, the active participation of the state and federal agencies, and the use of state and federal funds to stimulate and strengthen local library service. Of these, the most important is the idea of library systems.¹¹ A library system may be a single municipal library, or a single county or regional library; it may also be a group of two or more public libraries of any sizes and types working together on a purely voluntary basis, by a formal contract or by federation. The concept of a library system avoids the difficulty of naming a minimum population size for a public library; estimates of such in recent years have ranged from 25,000¹² to 100,000,¹³ but no one figure can be justified as both necessary and practical. Certainly a library system serving less than 25,000 people would have a hard task; a population nearer to 50,000 would appear to be a desirable minimum in most cases, and closer to 100,000 for optimum results.

The concept of a library system presupposes a number of local outlets and one or only a few places of greater strength in book collections, specialized personnel and other resources and services. Just so, there are a need and a place for one or only a few places in each state of even greater reserve strength in books and services with which to back up the local library systems. These would include the state university library, the state library and one or more of the largest municipal libraries, which might be reimbursed by the state for service to the libraries in its area. Not only is the state to be responsible for providing this second reserve in depth for existing libraries, but the state library agency clearly is the one available institution which could effectively move to provide local library service in those areas without libraries of their own and too poor or too sparsely populated to organize them. This might be done by operating a branch of the state library in the area if it can be proved profitable, or by using state

aid combined with local funds to support a library system, or by encouraging nearby systems to extend their area of service, backed with some form of financial assistance.

The Federal Government too has a role in this evolving national plan for public libraries. It has developed and maintains some of the largest and most specialized libraries in the country, and their materials are available to serious readers anywhere, by loan to their local library or by photoduplication. Among its other activities of benefit to public libraries, the Federal Government supports and maintains one of the largest systems of catalog card provision in the world, a remarkable and comprehensive apparatus for national bibliography, an impressively large and efficient system of distribution to local public libraries of its own publications, specialized service of "reading" material for the blind and an increasingly prolific and effective system for the collection and publication of library statistics. Its WPA library projects and TVA library service contracts were milestones in the history of the American public library. Since 1956 the Federal Government has expended up to \$7,500,000 a year in a program of aid to libraries in communities of less than 10,000 population, under the Library Services Act. This program has been without doubt the single most powerful incentive to the extension of library service, the formation of library systems and the stimulation of state library agencies.¹⁴

Practical Implications

The significance of this evolving national plan for public libraries, to the head of any individual library, is simply that he recognize its existence and importance and that he seek to find his appropriate place in it. This plan for libraries, like the whole American system of government, minimizes compulsion and uniformity and emphasizes flexibility and adaptation to local circumstances, as witness the diversity in the state plans approved under the Library Services Act.¹⁵ And there have been enough successes of various types of library systems to demonstrate the soundness of this approach. The best way for a librarian to protect the interests of the citizens in his tax support area is by considering with an open mind, and indeed seeking out and initiating, proposals for cooperation with other libraries, for joint service with other units of local government and for the organization of a library system in his area to give more, more varied and better library service to more people. No existing library of any reasonable size should be replaced or closed down, and no community library need lose its identity, or within broad limits its own choice of books, upon joining a library system, though it is all too clear that new small libraries should not be created. There is a parallel situation in the school field; the consolidation of the school district administrative units does not mean the abandonment or consolidation of the individual school buildings if they

are even reasonably efficient. Individual trustees or librarians who are unalterably opposed to any change in existing arrangements should be left unopposed. There are too many opportunities for cooperative extension and improvement of library service to waste time in convincing such people where their own best interests lie. They will in time see plentiful proof of the benefits to be secured from joining larger systems.

STATE-WIDE LIBRARY SYSTEMS

Library Systems Organized by the State Government

Because the provision and control of public library service is a responsibility of the states and not of the Federal Government, the state government is in each case the most important unit by far in the overall plan for the extension and improvement of public library service, and specifically for the organization and operation of regional library systems. The functions and powers of the state library agency are defined by law. State laws are necessary even to organize a tax-supported public library in any local government unit, and such legislation can do much to shape the quality and average size of public libraries. Thus, in Ohio, where the main support of public libraries is by a county-wide tax on stocks and bonds, every library receiving any proceeds of this tax is required to give free service to any citizen of the county. State legislation is similarly needed to authorize county and multi-county libraries and to permit them to enter into contracts for library service and to perform other activities, since it is a well-recognized principle of law that local government agencies can do only that which is specifically authorized or clearly implied by statute. It has long been debated whether public library service is a function which is and by right belongs intrinsically to the local government alone, or whether it is a responsibility of the state, which may or may not be performed by the local government but in which the state has an interest and a right to set standards and establish controls. Court cases of the past can be cited on both sides,¹⁶ but it is clear that the state government is taking ever more interest and more active role in the organization, operation and support of local public library service. The Library Services Act provided that the funds involved were to be handled by the state library agencies; the intent of the act was that the Federal funds would stimulate the states to greater activity in this field.

Inevitably, in some states at least, there will be one system of public libraries. This has been suggested by others, especially for small and sparsely populated states¹⁷ but for large and populous ones too.¹⁸ More likely to be achieved are the plans to reshape the pattern of public libraries in each of several states to secure an integrated state-wide system, based on

coordination between independent libraries and larger units, with local library service to all and at a reasonably good level of quality.¹⁹ In New York State such a plan has been approved by the legislature and has been put into effect, stimulated by state aid.²⁰ In all such actual and proposed systems of libraries organized or planned at the state level of government, there are three essential ingredients, viz., regional systems operated in co-operation with the state library agency, state aid to local libraries, and an over-all plan of the end result which is desired.

Regional branches of the state library agency, or library systems serving as such, appear to be necessary components of a successful state-wide plan. They may serve to extend local library service to hitherto unserved and sparsely populated areas. They may serve as demonstrations of the value of multi-county libraries, as has been done with success by several states using Federal funds; or of the value to existing but independent libraries of cooperative action, as in the case of the Watertown (New York) regional library.²¹ They may serve as regional centers of specialized materials and reference services, as in the Ohio and Pennsylvania plans,²² as in the use of the Denver Public Library to give reference service to the libraries of four near-by counties, and the Enoch Pratt Free Library of Baltimore and of the Boston Public Library to serve the other libraries of their respective states.²³ The obvious advantage of such a unit is that its service is not restricted to one particular local government area, since its funds (or that part of its funds for this purpose) come from the state. An equally obvious caution is that whenever possible the state library agency regional branch should operate through existing local libraries and seek to strengthen them and not to compete with or displace them. It is likely that there will be ever more use of this device in the future; and there is much to be said for centralizing at the state level (or in regional branches of the state library) the ordering and cataloging of books, the provision of specialized reference service and other such functions for all the public libraries of the state.

State Aid

State financial aid to local public libraries goes back to the nineteenth century, and today about half the states have such programs of aid. In half of these states today, and in all cases up to about 1930, no large sums have been involved. But in about a dozen states in the last thirty years substantial and continuing programs of state aid to local public libraries have been in effect.²⁴ From this experience two main lessons emerge. One is that the distribution formula recognize the differences between areas both in their taxable wealth and also in the effort made to raise funds locally for a specified level of quantity and quality of library service. That is, a state aid program would not be advisable which allocated available funds on a strict

per-capita basis or in proportion to present revenues of local libraries or simply to equalize the money spent on libraries in all parts of the state. State aid is best used to effect a balance between resources available in the various areas, and to stimulate local effort.

The second lesson to be learned is that state aid should not be given simply to increase funds available from local sources, but to represent the interests of the larger community in the reshaping of local programs, as in securing interlibrary cooperation in metropolitan areas. State aid is most effective when it is used to implement other programs, as in the form of establishment grants for new multi-county libraries. If state aid is used to buy books, centralized cataloging could be required; or if state aid is used to pay salaries, certification requirements should be set up and observed. The importance of state aid to stimulate services can hardly be overestimated, especially as the increased tax load on real property forces libraries in more and more states to seek other sources of revenue. One administrative consideration to be remembered with state or Federal aid is that it necessarily and inevitably involves reporting by the local unit on the expenditure of the funds so provided and the results secured. This is a far cry from state or Federal control, but grants-in-aid will always entail such reporting and the enforcement or observance of standards and broad policies deemed desirable. Reporting and standards are wholesome requirements.

The third essential in a program of public library service organized at the state level is a plan, a document, which incorporates the best thinking of all interested parties. Such a plan is required by the terms of the Library Services Act. For best results this plan should take account among other things of the political and social realities of the state, as in regard to trading areas. It should inventory the library resources already available, including those of schools, colleges and universities, and even special libraries, and provide for their fullest possible utilization in the future. Finally it should include a program or series of steps for getting from where the state is now in the provision of public library service to where it is thought it should desirably be. This is largely a matter of considering alternatives and fashioning a program likely to be effective and therefore realistic. The state library agency is desirably the agency to coordinate this planning, utilizing the technical skills of experts of various disciplines. The state library association should be heavily involved since the librarians themselves are the ones most affected by any such plan. In some states, such as New York, Pennsylvania and New Jersey, it has been found wise and expedient to get the governor or the legislature to be associated in the development of the plan, so as to secure their support in the necessary legislation and financing. A plan by itself will not bring results, but the right kind of results are not likely to be secured without a plan.

Practical Implications

By a state-wide system is meant complete coverage of library service of reasonable depth and quality, and effective coordination between all public libraries in the state. From the practical point of view, what this means to the library administrator is simply that the state library agency will have a much more important role in the future than it has had in the past. And while the Public Library Inquiry found in 1949 that most of its sample of 58 libraries had nothing at all to do with their state library agency,²⁵ such is not likely to be the case now or ever again in the future. In a sense it is a sign of the coming to maturity of the American public library. But it will require a change in attitude of the local librarian and an understanding on his part of why he can no longer be so complacently independent as he has been.

COUNTY AND MULTI-COUNTY LIBRARY SYSTEMS

If the activities of the Federal Government and possibly even those of the state government in regard to public libraries seem far away to the individual citizen or even the individual librarian, a county or multi-county library is something which affects him more immediately and directly. At present half of all American counties are so served, but the truth is that many of them are still too small and too weak to have library service of even reasonable quality. Of 1,058 county, city-county, and multi-county public libraries in 1956, the average population served was about 41,500 and the average annual expenditures \$44,000.²⁶ This is too small an operation to achieve efficiency or economy. On the other hand the 148 county and multi-county libraries which in 1956 served over 50,000 people each had an average population of 117,000 and average annual expenditures of about \$110,000.²⁷ These larger county and multi-county libraries, especially in the metropolitan areas, compare favorably in general with the municipal libraries of the same population size.

The great advantage which the county or multi-county library offers is the possibility of maximizing available resources for the common good of a larger population than that of any one community. Thus of 880 book-mobiles operated by public libraries in 1956, two-thirds were in county, city-county, and regional libraries.²⁸ Technical processes can be better handled once by a small county library than separately by several small independent libraries, but better yet in a large county or multi-county library. The great disadvantage of the county or multi-county library is that even librarians expected it automatically to be able to give good-quality library service, when often the wide area and sparse population actually

increase the cost. The county or multi-county library can be counted on to reach previously unserved areas with minimum library service but not necessarily to give quality service, such as reference work or skilled guidance to readers in their choice of books. This is particularly true when the county or multi-county library has no large central agency or when the one large city in the county or region has remained independent. One peculiar weakness of many county libraries is that by law it is usually possible and easy for any incorporated community so served to leave the county system if it wishes to set up its own independent library. As a matter of fact there is as much diversity in county libraries themselves as between county libraries and other types of larger units of library service. County libraries may serve all of a county or only that part not already served by local libraries; they may be united with the public library of the major city in the county or be operated by contract with that or some other library; they may be supported in full by a general tax or appropriation or in part by revenues or services from the various communities covered so that the situation almost approaches that of a federation of libraries.

What any county or multi-county library can depend on is that it will have a relatively dispersed population to serve over a relatively large area. This has typically meant many small service points, unlike the trend in other fields to have people come to larger installations, as the consolidated school, the supermarket and the hospital. This scattering of small, weak distributing points will probably have to give way to branches restricted to those focus towns of over 2,500 or 3,000 or even 5,000 population, unless they are more than 20 or 25 miles from people's homes.²⁰ The county and multi-county library thus has unusual administrative problems of staffing, training and coordinating field service personnel. Furthermore county and multi-county libraries have traditionally emphasized service to children and to schools. Once begun this is hard to abandon, but rarely has it led successfully to the development of adult service. So these libraries have failed to grow to their full potential. In short the county and multi-county library has tended to emphasize what it could do best, service to children and ready availability of popular reading, but it has typically been unable to add to these the provision of specialized books and related materials, reference information, adult reading guidance and other technical and professional services. We are only just beginning to see county and multi-county libraries emphasize the intensive development of library service in depth as well as or even more than its extension in terms of local availability.

Practical Implications

The chief librarian of a county or multi-county library should seek to have his library serve at least 50,000 people, with enough revenue from local

taxes and state and federal aid to provide service of reasonable quality.³⁰ He should strive to unite to his library any existing independent libraries by emphasizing to their staff and trustees how membership in the larger unit will improve both their administration and their public services. He would do well to include or affiliate with a library of 100,000 volumes or more, or to develop such a collection himself, and to emphasize adult use of non-fiction books and library reference service, which in the long run will be more important to the average taxpayer than service to schools and ready availability of best sellers.

FEDERATED SYSTEMS, CONTRACT SERVICE AND COOPERATIVE ARRANGEMENTS

The time may come when some one pattern of organization for library systems will be demonstrably superior to all others. But for the foreseeable future it would appear that it will be necessary to find various ways by which existing libraries can come together both to help each other and their patrons and to extend the benefits of library service to others. The main ways by which such action can be secured are by federation of existing libraries, by contractual arrangements and by cooperation. The main characteristics of all three are first that they are voluntary, and second that the parties to them are equals and usually retain their independence of action.

Federated Systems

The great difference between the usual type of county or multi-county library and a federated system is that the latter does not involve the complete merger of one library into a larger unit, and thereby the extinction of the former. Federated systems can obviously vary too in the degree to which the individual units retain freedom of action, but usually they control their own service program (however poor it may be) and keep their own name, their own board of trustees, their own librarian and library staff and their own selection of books. This sort of arrangement is obviously more palatable than is a completely integrated library system, as demonstrated in New York, where the success of the state program has been due even more to the flexibility allowed federated and cooperative systems than to the generous amounts of state aid. As with county and multi-county libraries, a federated system depends for its full development on the existence or creation of at least one large central library. Similarly a federated system allows member libraries to serve all residents of the area without regard to boundary lines of local government units; as such it is likely to be particularly effective in metropolitan areas.³¹ Federation also permits

flexibility in the choice of functions to be centralized and for changes in them in the course of time. Federation should be considered as a trial step and halfway measure to more concerted action. In a federated system, the librarian plays a dual role. He is a line officer in direct charge of his own library and of the headquarters of the system, but in relation to the trustees and personnel of the member libraries he is a staff officer, giving advisory and consultative services.

Contract Service

Contracts are used for a wide variety of public library purposes.²² At the one extreme, this device can encompass the complete provision of library service to the citizens of one taxing unit by an established library of another. At the other extreme, it can represent nothing more than an agreement between two independent libraries to honor each other's borrowers' cards. Again, as with federated systems, contract service overlaps some of the earlier categories; in fact, federation itself is usually accomplished by contract,²³ as are some multi-county libraries. But contract service is usually thought of as an arrangement with a limited life, subject as it is to periodic renewal and review. Furthermore, it usually embraces one or only a few designated functions and is thus a notch or two less comprehensive than federation. Finally, contract service is usually characterized by a money payment for the service in question.

Contract service is chiefly noteworthy for its flexibility in scope of service, in arrangements between two or more parties, in readjustment to changing conditions and in other ways. Contracts have often been made between large libraries and nearby smaller libraries or communities. The usual experience in such cases is that the remuneration for the service given is less than its cost; in other words the larger library tends to subsidize the smaller one. This is a general truism in the relations of libraries of unequal size, and is one of the reasons why state aid is essential to insure fairer distribution of the burden while securing the strength of the large libraries for the sake and benefit of the small ones. Contract service was more popular in earlier years than it is now; it still has its proper use under appropriate circumstances, as in the formation of regional processing centers and of film circuits.

Cooperative Arrangements

Informal cooperation without official commitment has been a characteristic of American librarianship for years, embracing such great schemes as cooperative indexing of periodicals, cooperative cataloging and union lists and catalogs, and such local items as interchange of books and magazines and joint discussions of new books for selection. Today there is a whole

new set of possibilities to explore, such as regional cooperation in the provision of specialized books and reference service.³⁴ In recent years there has been a rise of regional groups of public library administrators who meet several times a year simply to discuss common problems, to exchange experiences and to know each other better. Such groups tend to lead in time to some cooperative action, such as a union list of periodicals in the libraries of the area or some informal arrangement for subject specialization in a few obvious fields. Cooperative arrangements are usually of limited application and duration, by virtue of the fact that they can go no further or faster than is agreeable to the most reluctant member of the group.

Practical Implications

For the library administrator, federated systems, contract service and cooperative arrangements represent possible lines of action short of complete merger into a larger unit. As such they are valuable for explorations of the validity of the idea of a larger library system, as well as the possibility of special functional uses in each case. The effectiveness of administration is increased when there are more rather than fewer alternatives, so that the most nearly appropriate one can be considered. This is especially true in an area where the pressures for action are strong but the best path ahead is not always clear.

A COMPARISON OF CERTAIN ADMINISTRATIVE ASPECTS OF THE MAIN TYPES OF LARGER UNITS

Table 26-1 presents in summary form a considered estimate for each of four main types of larger units of library service in regard to nine selected aspects of administration, especially as they affect the services and operation of the local libraries in or branches of the system. There is a wide variety of cases to be found in each of the four main types of unit, and no one should expect these judgments to be universally applicable. In the case of state-wide systems, the statements made are based on the plans so far devised rather than on any actual or extensive experience.

The main point of the table is that the county and multi-county libraries exercise more complete supervision over their local service agencies than do state-wide or federated systems, and are therefore in a better position theoretically to improve the administration of those agencies, primarily by bringing in more and more specialized personnel. Probably for these very reasons, such units are less acceptable to existing independent libraries, though some modern county and multi-county libraries seek to overcome this by taking on the characteristics of a federation of libraries. Primarily because of the limited size, population and wealth of most American

Table 26-1. A Comparison of Certain Administrative Aspects of the Main Types of Larger Units of Library Service.

Relationship of Central Headquarters to Local Service Agencies				
(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Type of Unit	Choice of personnel	Book selection	Ordering & cataloging	Reference service
1. State-wide system	None if certification standards are met Advisory	Advisory	Desirably centralized	Advisory
2. Federated system		Technical assistance provided Supervisory	Centralized	Technical assistance provided Supervisory
3. Multi-county unit	Supervisory	Supervisory	Centralized	Supervisory
4. County Library	Supervisory	Supervisory	Centralized	Supervisory
(f)				
Type of Unit	Acceptability of plan to independent local library	Ability to provide effective reference service to all residents	Ability to reduce unit costs of operation	Possibilities for administrative improvement of the local libraries
1. State-wide system	High	Hard to say	High	Average
2. Federated system	High	High	High	Average
3. Multi-county	Low	Average to high	Average to high	High
4. County library	Low	Low	Average to low	High

counties, the county library is in general the least likely of the four types to provide good information service to most residents of the area or to be especially economical in operation.

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15. *State Plans Under the Library Services Act: Supplement 2*, 123 p. Bulletin 1960, no. 27. U.S. Office of Education.

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18. Walter T. Brahm. "Library Science in Ohio, 2050 AD." *Library Journal*, 83: 1013-1016. Apr. 1, 1958.

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21. Charles M. Armstrong. "The New York State Experiment in Regional Library Service." *Library Quarterly*, 21: 79-93. Apr. 1951.

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24. For a summary of the status of state aid to libraries, as of a few years ago, see Wilfred C. Morin and Nathan M. Cohen. *State Library Extension Services: A Survey of Resources and Activities of State Library Administrative Agencies: 1955-56* (U.S. Office of Education Misc. no. 37. 1960) p. 5-7, 24. Also, more recently, S. Janice Kee, ed. *State Aid to Public Libraries*. *Library Trends*, 9: 1-128. July 1960.

25. Oliver Garceau. *The Public Library in the Political Process*. (A Report of the Public Library Inquiry.) 254 p. 1949. Columbia University Press. p. 218-21.

26. Rose Vainstein. *Statistics of Public Libraries: 1955-56*. *op. cit.* p. 95.

27. *Statistics of County and Regional Library Systems Serving Populations of 50,000 or More: Fiscal Year 1956*. (Circular no. 506. 1957.) U.S. Office of Education. p. 4.

28. Vainstein, *op. cit.*, p. 76.

29. Lowell A. Martin. "County and Regional Libraries: Hope and Reality." *Minnesota Libraries*, 19: 147-154. June 1959. Also Eleanor H. Morgan. "The County Library." In Joeckel, *op. cit.* p. 59-74. When in 1955 the California State Library adopted a minimum definition of a branch (open 5 days a week, with 7,000 volumes, and at least one professional and one nonprofessional assistant), the drop in the number of branches in county libraries was much greater than in municipal libraries. The number of county libraries with branches, by this definition, fell from 43 to 8, and the number of their branches from 552 to 23. See Grace Murray. "Branches' Is a Dirty Word." *News Notes of California Libraries*, 50: 538-40. Oct. 1955. In Wisconsin it has been suggested that communities under 8,000 be required to file with the state library agency an application of intention to create a library, so that alternate methods may be considered.

30. Some administrative aspects of a multi-county or regional system are seen in the example of the Washington North Central Regional Library, organized in 1961-62 as a result of the Columbia River Regional Library 5-year demonstration. It serves 5 counties, with 131,000 population scattered over 15,000 square miles (twice as large as Massachusetts). Headquarters at Wenatchee, 17,000 population, plus two secondary offices 45 and 75 miles away, serve 14 community libraries, 10 stations and branches and three bookmobiles. The books are regionally owned; each community asks for what it needs. Instruction is given to local mostly untrained staff as to methods and services. When reference questions cannot be answered locally they are mailed overnight to

headquarters. HQ catalogs all the system books by IBM and supplies a printed book catalog to each service point, which includes the total holdings of the region. The HQ extension librarian, children's, reference and youth specialists visit all points and give leadership, guidance and personnel development. (Letter from Gretchen K. Schenk. November 30, 1961.)

31. For example, the Nassau Library System (Long Island, N.Y.) *Sum and Substance*. May 1960. Also Joseph Klimberger. "Cooperative Reference Service." *Library Journal*. 85: 1525-1527. Apr. 15, 1960. See also footnotes on regional reference service in Chapter 18.

32. Lura G. Currier. comp. *Contracts and Agreements for Public Library Service*. P.L.D. Reporter No. 6. 49 p. 1958. A.L.A.

33. The North Bay (Calif.) Cooperative Library System is in effect a federation by contract of 16 independent libraries; it now has centralized cataloging, a system-wide coordinator of children's work, closed-circuit teletype, film circuit and subject specialization. The terminology used for various larger units of service is not always precise or consistent.

34. Rezia Gaunt, ed. *Cooperative Practices Among Public Libraries*. P.L.D. Reporter No. 5. 70 p. 1956. A.L.A.

PART 4.

Developing the Book Collection: Selection, Preparation, Care

CHAPTER 27

Administration of the Book Collection

We come now to the librarian's stock in trade, the materials with which he deals. One of the public library's major responsibilities has always been the development of a stock of books, each worthy in its own right and potentially useful to the community. This involves policy, planning and management as preface to selection and procurement. It likewise includes the custody and safekeeping of the collections, the repair and rebinding of books, and eventually their withdrawal and discard. This chapter deals with five administrative aspects of book selection: (1) objectives and policies; (2) budgeting for book selection; (3) assigning the parts of the selection process; (4) special problems and nonbook materials; and (5) custody, weeding and evaluation.¹⁻⁴ Audio-visual materials are discussed in Chapter 23.

The processes of book selection, acquisition and cataloging can be viewed as involving a "circle of interest."⁵ Those who select books, primarily on the basis of reader needs, should find these various steps so organized that the original interest in getting the book will continue until these same staff members can see each book go into use by the public. Breaks in this continuity and failure by the selector and by the others involved, to "see the book through" into actual use are deterrents to full public use of each book, for which money has been spent. The process begins when a new title comes to the attention of the selector. It proceeds through the stages by which the title is evaluated and selected, to the cataloging and classification stage. The circle is completed when the book is placed in the hands of its readers. Book selection is an art, involving personal knowledge of many factors and professional judgment. Cataloging and classification are also matters of judgment and in part are arts and in part techniques, to implement and express the selection judgments. The book collection should be built and made ready for the use of the library's total public, and not to fit some theoretical pattern.

OBJECTIVES AND POLICIES

Objectives of Book Selection

The public library enables people to have access to a larger collection of materials than each would have if he were limited to his own books. This was why the early association-type libraries were organized. As public libraries grew larger and their patronage more diversified, it became less clear what kinds of books should be collected and kept. An individual finds it easy to decide what books he wants to buy and keep, and a library organized to serve a homogeneous group of people likewise has little difficulty deciding what items to secure. But a general public library serving a heterogeneous population has a wide range of possible choices and a minimum of reliable guidance for those choices.

The matter is complicated both by the increasing number of books available and by the wide variety of forms of material, printed and non-printed. Yet this flood of materials, so characteristic of our age, makes the public library ever more important and useful as the mediator between the individual and the bewildering mass of print. Citizens should find a collection carefully chosen for its intrinsic worth, its timeliness and its potential usefulness in the community. The effectiveness of the public library depends as much on the wisdom of the choice of materials as on any other factor. Two major responsibilities of a librarian are to build up an excellent collection of materials, and to see that the inflow of new books is prompt and continuous.

Book selection should proceed not by chance or the personal interest of individual staff members but by written objectives and policies. These should be based on the best thinking of staff and trustees, as limited by funds, on such policy decisions as total size; distribution between adult and juvenile books, fiction and nonfiction; relative emphasis on promptness of acquiring new books and of discarding old ones; and types of materials to be included and not included.

To build a collection most vital and useful to its community a library needs prompt acquisition of new books and elimination of worn-out and dated materials. If it is interested in the serious needs of adult readers, it will have relatively more subject periodicals, reference and adult nonfiction books and fewer adult novels. Decisions on such basic matters are influenced by the special strengths and ready public accessibility of the collections in other local libraries. Still to be developed are regional or state-wide cooperative acquisition programs; in most areas of the country they are badly needed.⁶

A statement of objectives for a public library book collection should deal with the types of materials to be included and *not* to be included. Gener-

ally, most public libraries do not purchase rare books, books used as texts in local schools, genealogies, medical texts or law books. This should not discourage getting textbooks of high quality which many adult readers prefer to more popular works that do not have as much substance and often are not so well written. And larger libraries do have state statutes and the best standard texts on at least the major aspects of the law. For printed nonbook materials there should be a statement as to what is acceptable as a gift or what will be purchased, e.g., magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, flat pictures, photographs, prints, maps and clippings. Manuscripts should be accepted in the typical library only if they deal with local history; the large city libraries are increasingly used for specialized reference materials. Nonprint materials, such as phonograph records, 16-mm. motion pictures, filmstrips, microfilm and framed pictures have won a place in modern public libraries, as discussed in Chapter 23.

Policies of Book Selection

After decisions are made on objectives and inclusiveness of the collection, book selection policies should be written, reviewed by the staff and approved by the board.⁷ Such policy statements guide the day-by-day decisions of those who select materials. Their usefulness will be increased by the extent to which they provide specific guidance for selection in all main subject areas, including such issues as controversial political questions, sex and ephemeral recreational fiction.

The public library seeks to have books on all sides of a controversial issue. There are citizens who oppose this. They believe the public library should not circulate books critical of the economic and political system of this country. They fear such books will weaken readers' support of this country's system of private property and democratic government. Not only is this precisely the stand taken by dictatorships with regard to their public libraries, but it is contrary to the guarantees of freedom in our own Constitution.

Librarians believe, with Milton, that truth will prevail in the open market of competitive ideas. If the claims of censorship and suppression are recognized as valid for one cause, it increases the difficulty of denying them for others. Libraries in our country today are subjected to relatively little pressure from censors, probably because they have acted as self-censors and refrained from purchasing controversial books. When censorship has been attempted, however, librarians and trustees who maintained their position have won community support.⁸

More difficulty is likely to arise with books dealing frankly with sex than with those concerning political issues. Here again a policy statement should

be worked out in advance of an incident and be tested for adequacy and soundness. Nonfiction books are usually easy to judge. Studies like the Kinsey reports and authoritative books on sex instruction are important titles for public libraries. The problem usually arises in creative composition, especially modern novels.

Everyone draws the line at some point as to what is objectionable. The public library should draw it at that point of greatest freedom combined with creative value, which is supported by at least a substantial minority of the community. In time this will become the position of the majority. Recent court decisions have established the rule that a book should be judged in its entirety and not by passages taken out of context, and by its likely effect on an average adult and not on a susceptible youngster.⁹ Sex frankness in a novel by itself is no recommendation, naturally. To be acquired by a public library, the book should be well written and possess a reasonable degree of artistic integrity. Many librarians, devoted to freedom of opinion, especially as to social and economic issues, and reluctant to see any form of censorship, are conscientiously concerned over the increasing proportion of sex and depravity in current novels. They recognize that writers of literary ability but prurient minds may produce books of sensational and profitable popular appeal, which are socially destructive, and they consider that a public library has as much obligation to be concerned over ethical as over "literary" values. They are supported by their communities as often and as fully as their more liberal colleagues.

Books of recreational fiction are controversial to librarians, not because they are objected to, but because they are so inconsequential and yet so popular with certain groups of readers. Disproportionate funds go for light love stories, westerns, mysteries and science fiction, when no public library has enough money to buy all the substantial informational books needed and asked for.

While no other source of reference and nonfiction books exists in the average community for the general public, recreational fiction is found in paper-covered books, magazines, the movies, television and radio. The rise of mass media and paperback books has greatly reduced the demand for recreational fiction in libraries. It has correspondingly increased the library's obligation to provide a fair number of copies of perhaps two hundred of the best fiction titles each year. The library should neither downgrade nor neglect its fiction service; too many novels are powerful, constructive and appealing portrayals of character and of life.

The book selection policy should set some minimum level of quality for acceptable titles, and a quantity limit as to the proportion of book budget to be spent on adult fiction. The demand for fiction can be partly met by a pay-duplicate or rental collection (discussed later), by the transfer of recreational fiction from one agency to another instead of purchasing

multiple copies, by eliminating their cataloging, and by the use of paper-covered copies.¹⁰

These problems need to be resolved in advance, if possible by a written policy statement, tested by experience, approved by the board and subject to review. A number of libraries have such a statement.¹¹ It should be written in terms of the local situation and not merely copied from that of other libraries or from some general pronouncement. It should contain as much detail as necessary; the more general the statement the less helpful it will be in screening titles for purchase. The existence of an established, published policy, well thought out, available to staff and public, and operating satisfactorily, will help to deter attempts at censorship, and provide a systematic procedure for hearing complaints and for reviewing individual titles.

BUDGETING FOR BOOK SELECTION

Budgeting

Book selection policies are greatly influenced by the book budget. Small libraries, for example, will be tempted to buy a larger proportion of "popular" books than will large libraries. A good library will bend every energy to enlarge its book fund. The book funds of most public libraries have steadily decreased as a percentage of total expenditures and in many cases in actual purchasing power as the average cost of books has risen. Thus the total known public library expenditures for books, magazines and audio-visual materials dropped from 18 per cent of total current operating expenditures in 1939 to 15.7 per cent in 1956 and to 14.2 per cent in 1960. Although the actual amount spent for materials multiplied almost five times between 1939 and 1960 (from \$8,784,000 to \$26,818,000 in 1956 and to \$42,533,000 in 1960), the total expenditures of public libraries rose more than six times (from \$48,832,000 to \$170,223,000 in 1956 and to \$298,263,000 in 1960).¹² The prices of books and magazines likely to be bought by public libraries, on the other hand, rose almost 50 per cent from 1947-49 to 1960.¹³

It is the responsibility of the librarian and trustees as a first decision affecting the book budget, is to see that pressures for higher salaries and from increasing costs are not met by reducing the book fund. To the contrary, a concerted effort is overdue to restore budgets for books and other materials, and binding, to 18 or 20 per cent of total budgets. Book funds can be used more efficiently by: (1) securing maximum discounts; (2) making books easily available by interchange between agencies; (3) encouraging gifts; and (4) utilizing paper-covered books when possible. These methods are necessary, but they cannot be expected to take the place of additional dollars in the book fund.

A. L. A. standards call for 4,000 to 5,000 titles a year to be added to each library system with a basic book stock of at least 100,000 volumes, and for at least a fifth of a volume per capita to be added annually for a system serving less than 100,000 people.¹⁴ But only 270 libraries in 1956 had as many as 100,000 volumes each and the average annual accessions of all reporting libraries serving less than 100,000 people was less than one-tenth volume per capita.¹⁵ What constitutes a desirable book fund for a public library cannot easily be stated in general terms, since much depends on such factors as the present state of the book collection, and the relative emphasis to be given expensive technical books and less expensive fiction.

As a rule of thumb, based on current averages, the fund for books and other materials should be about 15 to 18 per cent of the total budget, which would mean about 50 cents per capita, if the library budget were about \$3.50 per capita. (See also Chapter 7.) The strength of a library's book collection lies first in its quality and second in its size, and the strength of the library's service depends on the strength of its book collection, second only to the ability of its staff because an able staff builds an excellent collection. It is often possible to document the need for book funds more dramatically than for other items,¹⁶ and citizens quickly express appreciation for the benefits of an increasing number of new books, promptly acquired.

The second main decision involving the book budget concerns the allotment of available funds by categories, by agencies and by time, with a monthly statement on the status of the funds. Percentages appropriate to any given library as between juvenile books, adult fiction and adult non-fiction can hardly be set up here; they depend on the present state of local collections and on plans for their development. But it is recommended that 25 per cent of total book funds be used for juvenile books, 25 per cent for adult fiction and 50 per cent for adult nonfiction (including reference books and periodicals). This may be aided by limiting fiction to about 300 new titles per year, carefully selected and duplicated.¹⁷

Another usual allotment is by branches and departments, and such apportioning needs annual review and adjustment. No formula can be offered for distribution of funds by agency. To distribute book funds according to circulation totals puts a premium on recreational fiction and best sellers, and penalizes informational reading and study. Attempts to combine data as to adult nonfiction circulation, reference questions and other factors, as a guide to book fund allotments, have not produced a satisfactory solution. Allotments are a matter of policy, objectives and emphasis, to be decided by the librarian and professional staff. A reserve fund should be kept for special needs. Allotments are often made for special types of materials, such as encyclopedias, periodicals or replacements. Agency expenditures may be limited also to a monthly or quarterly per cent of the year's funds to keep expenditures running evenly, adjusting them for special circumstances.

ASSIGNING THE PARTS OF THE SELECTING PROCESS

Organization for Book Selection

Book selection should be the function of the entire professional staff. In early days, the trustees usually selected the books; sometimes they knew more about books than the librarian.¹⁸ Today, except in the smallest libraries, the role of the trustees in book selection is either nominal, as in giving routine approval to lists of new books submitted by the librarian, or policy making, and as the agency of final decision on controversial or borderline titles. It is the librarian who organizes the book selection machinery; thereby, in effect, he manages the resulting book collection. In small libraries he makes all the decisions, but in even medium-sized libraries he neither can nor should, for he will have trained assistants who work daily with readers and will be aware of reader needs. The "circle of interest" referred to earlier begins when a staff member recognizes in the announcement of a new book a desirable addition, in the light of what he knows of reader requests, community interests and the titles in the collection.

Book selecting follows no set pattern. In smaller libraries there is often an informal arrangement. Staff members read reviewing journals assigned to them and check promising titles. The librarian, his assistant or designated department heads then make the final decisions, and the titles are ordered. Usually the reference head and the children's head choose for their special fields.

In larger libraries, this informal, decentralized process is found on a larger scale, with more specialized assignments. With a number of branches and departments in the system, coordination of purchases for all agencies is necessary but delays must be avoided. Lists of books selected for purchase by subject departments, the children's department, and other central agencies may be mimeographed and distributed to all other units concerned. Enough copies of reviews and other information should be distributed so that checkings can all be received in the order department within three or four days. In large libraries these lists, often annotated and with items starred for first purchase, become part of a system of current and retrospective book selection.

In some larger libraries today staff committees review all recommendations from individual librarians, and decide on the number of copies to order, or designate titles approved for purchase, with the final choice to be made by agency heads. Usually there are separate committees for adult and for juvenile books,¹⁹ perhaps one for pamphlets. In any of these patterns the selectors need written statements of selection policy in all subject fields.

The mechanics of book selection are less important than the achievement of certain goals. If all copies of a new title can be ordered at the same time, costs can be cut by cataloging and processing them together. The system

used must prevent unintentional duplication of orders for the same title. But books should be secured promptly and made ready to circulate while they are being reviewed, discussed and requested; more specifically, when readers see current reviews and advertisements of new books, these books should have been already bought, cataloged and on the library shelves. The process of book selection must be current and brief. Sometimes these goals conflict. Thus, if the central library, in order that all the branches can make up their minds, must slow down order and receipt of its copies so long that they cannot be ready for the reader shelves by publishers' official release dates, then central's copies should be ordered immediately, i.e., "blocking" orders should not thwart promptness in getting books to readers.

A proper basis for deciding how to select a new book must also be established. At the one extreme are those who advocate that every new book be read and reviewed by a staff member. This delays purchase decisions and imposes an impossible work load. Only in the largest libraries is it practical to get approval copies of all new books, or even all new novels, for staff members to read before making decisions. Granted that it is generally desirable to read a book before selecting it, many if not most books bought by public libraries do not require such treatment. Experienced staff members who read proposed new books before purchase are almost as uniformly favorable in their judgments as the usual book-reviewing journals, and libraries which use published reviews buy essentially the same titles as do those which use staff reviews.²⁰

At the other extreme there is the danger that the wholesale purchase of all new current trade books of certain publishers, advocated for very large libraries and sometimes called the Greenaway Plan,²¹ will result in the acceptance of titles which are substandard, or not essential, simply because they are at hand, already paid for, and cannot be returned, and though they can be omitted they are likely to be added. Similarly it is unwise for a library to join any cooperative book ordering and cataloging project which reduces its freedom of book selection.

Current Services for Evaluation

Most libraries select on the basis of reviews in the leading journals. *The Virginia Kirkus Bookshop Service* is the promptest, its judgments are perceptive of library needs and are based on galley proofs read before publication, and the annotations are extremely well done. There are many others—*The New York Times Book Review*, the New York Herald Tribune's *The Lively Arts and Book Review*, the *Saturday Review*, etc. The A. L. A. *Booklist and Subscription Books Bulletin* contains critical reviews of reference books and titles for the smaller library. Baker & Taylor's *Book Buyers' Guide* gives prompt short evaluations. On several thousand new books a year *Library Journal* has brief usually excellent notes written by practicing

librarians; these are also available on cards. For children's books there are, in addition, the *Bulletin of the Center for Children's Books*, of the University of Chicago, the *Horn Book* and the MB Nubook Cards (P. O. Box 585, Oak Park, Ill.), which index reviews of all new children's books in eight important journals. Children's books are more often read by librarians before being purchased than are adult books, even though reviews of children's books are often more critical than those of adult books.

For titles being considered after enough time has elapsed for their reviews to be listed in the *Book Review Digest*, numerous scholarly journals may be consulted.²² The *Technical Book Review Index* is invaluable in its field, as are other special tools too numerous to mention here. The remarkable thing is the width of the net which must be cast for references to all the important new books and other materials.

However, waiting for publication date and reviews will retard service. Advance announcements from the major trade publishers and their advertisements in *Publishers' Weekly* provide the first notice and description of substantial titles which comprise a large proportion of main-line new adult nonfiction. If the author and subject and the quality of the publisher indicate that the book will be a worthy one and in demand, it is possible to make good decisions on these factors plus the judgment of most experienced and exacting staff members.

In most cases a competent professional librarian can fairly assess the worth of a new book in a short time, based on information ranging from an entry in the "Weekly Record" of *Publishers' Weekly* to one or more full-length reviews. A competent librarian knows whether it is six weeks or six years since a good book has appeared on a given subject. In larger libraries it is as much a matter of rejecting the irrelevant or unessential as of determining precisely what is to be added. Mistakes will be made, but they can also be made after prolonged analysis. Shorter average time and lower unit cost of a brief selection procedure are important factors.

Evaluation of the book collection, as will be discussed later, is an important, continual and usually discouraging aspect of book selection. When a doubtful or controversial title does appear, provision should be made for it to be read and reviewed by several staff members, and if necessary by the librarian or some of the trustees. Competent specialists in the community are excellent sources of opinion on the value of books in their fields. They should also be cultivated for information about desirable titles for the library.

A reader's request should receive prompt consideration. If the title is ordered, he should be notified when it is available. It is important that there be a systematic accumulation of titles for which replacement copies are desired, and for their review and approval by a competent authority. Sometimes a replacement list of approved titles can then be issued to all agencies for an indication of orders; block replacements are usually ordered

in the summer when the flow of new trade books has slackened.

Branch libraries complicate the process of book selection, for their collections should be tailored to the needs and interests of their communities, subject to system-wide observance of minimum standards. The subject specialists at the main library should suggest titles for branch consideration. It may not always be wise for a branch to be restricted to titles available in central, as central may choose one of two equally good cookbooks and a branch library may want the other; and many persons of a foreign nationality may live near a branch library and need books in their own tongue. Such points should be resolved and incorporated in the statement of book selection policy.

SPECIAL PROBLEMS

Duplication of Titles

To what extent shall duplicate copies be purchased of any one title? If as many copies of a best seller were purchased as would satisfy all reader requests at the peak of its popularity, many would stand unused on the shelves for years afterward. Some libraries buy another copy for every five or so unfilled reserve requests. A rental collection (discussed below), paper-covered copies, provision for a free flow of books between agencies for temporary or indefinite use help to meet the problem. Purchasing multiple copies in anticipation of demand is not recommended, for needed copies can be obtained fast enough to make unnecessary an investment of funds on a gamble. Children's books are usually duplicated more heavily than adult.

Pay-Duplicate Collection

From its regular budget no library can afford enough copies of worthy new novels in heaviest demand. Many progressive libraries maintain an extra-budgetary "pay-duplicate collection," whereby rentals of a few cents per day finance these extra copies. Some libraries include important new nonfiction. A Rhode Island court ruling pointed out that both those who wish free copies and those who prefer to pay rent for copies without having to wait so long get better service.²³ It is not desirable that a commercial concern install a rental collection in a public library, control the selection of books, and reap the profit from their use; the library's own pay-duplicate collection is self-financing and it owns the books. Four requirements set up by the Rhode Island court ruling form the sensible basis on which a library can manage a rental collection to the satisfaction of all. (1) There shall be at least one free copy of any title. (2) All receipts for rental books shall be expended for other rental books, and not used for other books or other

purposes. (3) The library shall make no profit. (4) All books shall be transferred to the free shelves upon paying for themselves. Most libraries interpret the two last provisions as allowing the library to make up what it would lose on some slow-moving title by charging slightly more than the net cost of some other titles; otherwise the revolving fund would be depleted.

Receipts and purchases of rental books are accounted for in a separate extra-budgetary revolving fund. To turn the receipts over to the local municipality, on the ground that all cash receipts should be covered into the city's general fund, destroys the incentive to build up a large, fast-moving and efficient rental collection. One sign of a good pay-duplicate collection is the number, freshness and rapid turnover of titles transferred to free shelves within six or eight months, and the general popularity of its rental collection. To achieve this requires continuous publicity, e.g., by using stickers on the front cover explaining the four principles on which the rental collection operates, and stressing the benefits to the readers who prefer to use free copies. The rental collection should be no excuse for lowering of standards in fiction choice. On the contrary, if librarians deplore the quality of novels lent by commercial rental libraries, they have a responsibility to provide the public with high-quality fiction. Fewer and better titles, and more copies, are proper objectives for a well-run pay-duplicate collection, a great builder of reader satisfaction.

Paperbacks

Paper-covered books present peculiar difficulties, such as their bibliographical identification, and securing copies of desired titles; on these points the situation is improving steadily.²⁴ A good policy is to secure a sample copy of each paper-covered book considered. Many of these books do not hold up physically for more than a few circulations, though there are now several series of paperback books using good paper, good binding, and enough margins to allow for rebinding in hard covers. Increasingly more titles are appearing in paper covers only. With the current increase in book prices, public libraries are likely to use paper-covered books more instead of less, especially as several companies are now "rebinding" or treating them so that they can circulate forty or fifty times. To fill the demand for recreational fiction they can be given minimum processing and remain uncataloged.

Gifts

A public library is sometimes offered books and materials on a special subject, or the library may initiate and develop such a collection for local reasons. Special gifts are important in research libraries, and highly desirable

in large city libraries, but in the typical public library they may represent subjects not in the main stream of community interests. As they are seldom given with funds for staffing, they tend to be static and unused. If a collection must be kept separate and not allowed to circulate, it is doubly unfortunate. Special collections are desirable in such fields as local history, but the book selection policy statement should spell out the circumstances under which special collections will be accepted or be allowed to develop in the individual library. A metropolitan library will wish to encourage them for certain planned objectives; nothing said here is intended as unappreciative of special collections accessible through adequate staffs to scholars who will use them.²⁵

Gifts of money to purchase books are often made by local groups, e.g., accountants, insurance men, stamp collectors, garden clubs, and by individual donors for memorial volumes. The library should promote such gifts; often the books are notable acquisitions otherwise impossible. There should be a policy statement on the library's acceptance and use of gift books generally, viz., that they be accepted only if there is no condition imposed on their use, location, rebinding or disposal. Procedures should be established for prompt and orderly review of gift books. In general, less than a third of the usual run of gift books will be useful; the library should be free to dispose of the rest. Much time can be wasted in trying to give books away, but there are hundreds of poor libraries in backward areas which should get good duplicate and withdrawn copies now being destroyed. Doubtless some state or regional system will be created "to stop this pitiful waste" of material which can be used.

Periodicals

Next to books in importance are periodicals, for both reading and reference help.²⁶ Since their number is increasing constantly and the quality of individual magazines changes, there should be an annual review of a library's magazine subscriptions. Inclusion of a title in a standard index of periodicals is a major consideration, since that greatly increases its usefulness.

Periodical subscriptions are best handled by blanket order through one or another of several leading agencies.²⁷ Many valuable periodicals are available free, such as house organs of business and industrial firms. Small public libraries usually bind only those likely to be needed often or over a long period of time, including (in libraries of over 10,000 population) most of those indexed in *Abridged Reader's Guide*. Unbound back issues of magazines are often preferred because they can be loaned. A useful device is a collection of duplicate unbound back issues of ten or twelve magazines, e.g., *Time*, most often used for reference, for replacement and for circulation; gift copies, two or three days old, can be solicited. Several large

libraries keep duplicate unbound files of several hundred magazines to lend for home and office reference use.

Newspapers

Most public libraries receive and keep all local general newspapers, important papers of nearby larger cities, and a few of regional and national importance, at least the *New York Times*, which is indexed. An age-old problem of public libraries is how to handle the type of patron who comes in only to read the current day's paper because he seeks a comfortable idling place. Solutions have ranged from stand-up reading racks to not making a newspaper available until it is a day old!

Modern newspaper stock usually crumbles after twenty-five years. Small libraries should try to get the state library to film local papers as the chief source for local history. In large cities, the solution is to microfilm the papers, thus saving space, eliminating mutilation, and lessening loss by fire or theft (rolls of film have been stolen) since the master negative is usually kept elsewhere. The negative can be used to print full-size copies of individual articles, and microfilm reading machines are in use now which can produce a readable copy of what is seen on the screen. Often the publisher of the local paper may be persuaded to give a microfilm print to the library. If not, the library should arrange to help finance its microfilming; if prints can be sold to the publisher and to other libraries this may cost no more than it would to bind. It is unusual for a newspaper to publish any index. Many public libraries, especially those with several branches, have a staff member scan an extra copy of each day's issue and clip articles for the local history collection or the vertical files; several copies can be processed at one time and sent out for branch filing.

Local History

Every public library has an obligation to collect materials on the history of its own locale. As discussed at greater length in Chapter 19, these materials sometimes are integrated with the main book collection, especially if a museum or local history society has most of the nonprint items. But in many instances the public library has the major collection, perhaps the only files of local history, especially of more recent years, including not only books, newspapers, pamphlets, maps, pictures, posters and other print, but also letters, diaries, typewritten manuscripts, official archives of local societies and institutions and other records. These tend to become a separately organized collection, and to attract gifts of additional materials as it grows and is used. Embarking on this path requires administrative decisions, financial support and a program of constant publicity and solicitation of materials. But it can lead to an ever more valuable and unique collection, aided by local volunteer enthusiasts.

Pamphlets and the Vertical File

A vertical file in a public library means a collection of pamphlets, clippings, magazine article reprints or tear sheets, and perhaps maps and pictures. Generally these are too thin to stand by themselves and must be kept in folders in standard file drawers, arranged alphabetically by subject.²⁸ They are available for loan and have a relatively short useful life. Such files are of great value in all public service agencies, especially in meeting the demands from school assignments. The file should be weeded regularly and a flow of the best current materials should be maintained, as discussed in Chapter 18.

More and better pamphlets are being published today than ever before. Many sources of information about them are available,²⁹ and a member of the staff, or a committee for the branches, should be responsible for screening and selecting. Often they are free or so inexpensive that it costs less to order a number of copies than to spend time and money deciding how many to get in each case separately. Just as it is desirable to obtain all needed copies of a vertical file item at one time, so it is to be preferred that all copies be processed centrally and distributed to branches, subject-headed and ready for use. Thicker and more expensive pamphlets are treated like books for selection purposes, and many are cataloged and bound. Others may stand on the shelves alone or in pamphlet boxes or Princeton files. But the vertical file is the favorite method.

Maps, Pictures, Catalogs and Music

Maps are sometimes included in a vertical file. The larger public libraries have separate collections of maps, including state road maps, road atlases, the U. S. Topographic Survey sheets, picture maps and other items. Many are available free or at small cost. The Cello-Clip device—heavy punched tabs mounted at the upper corners of the map and then hanging it from two or three heavy rods, somewhat like an inverted vertical file—is an efficient inexpensive way to handle sheet maps. The public is increasingly map-minded and a library should have a battery of loose maps as well as bound atlases.³⁰

Similarly, flat pictures, preferably mounted on cardboard, are valuable. Art prints and informational pictures on a wide variety of subjects can be purchased or clipped from magazines or gift books not otherwise needed. If desired, they may be mounted by using the Seal electric press, which bonds them to a poster board, making them more useful to artists, teachers, students and children. Most libraries keep clipped pictures simply in folders or envelopes. Some large libraries have hundreds of thousands of items, but every public library should have at least some.³¹

Every library of over 10,000 population needs a collection of current catalogs of major colleges and universities in the region, and a score of those most famous nationally. These are available free but must be requested individually each year. There are also mail order and other catalogs. Sheet music is a type of material which only a large public library can be expected to collect. Musical scores for established operas and for well-known songs should be available in many more libraries in hardcover books. Music in the form of phonograph records is available in several hundred libraries. The selection of both language, literary and musical records and tapes and films, considered earlier in Chapter 23, should be the special responsibility of those staff members who service their use. These items should be covered by the selection policy statement of the library.

Government Documents

Many documents are of prime importance in answering readers' questions.³² Libraries that are depositories for government publications receive automatically one free copy of all titles in requested series. The disadvantage to this arrangement is that such libraries are required to keep forever the publications received on depository privilege. The Superintendent of Documents has permitted depository libraries in Wisconsin and New York to transfer documents no longer needed to state-wide collections. Extension of this system of one or two permanent reservoir collections in each state awaits approval by Congress. Nondepository libraries can often secure free copies of new publications from issuing agencies or from their Congressmen, as can depository libraries which want extra copies or separate items in series not originally requested. Federal government publications cost little when purchased, and paperwork on orders to the Government Printing Office may be cut by buying coupons to be sent with later orders.

The *Monthly Catalog of U. S. Government Publications* is the current comprehensive listing of these materials, and it is a formidable task merely to scan each issue. There are also the subject price lists of the Government Printing Office, the bi-weekly list of *Selected United States Government Publications* (probably the best service for smaller libraries), and the lists of publications of the various individual agencies. No one of these sources can be relied on for all the items useful to public libraries. Even depository libraries have this problem, since they receive automatically only those series they have requested and agreed to keep, and often other individual titles are desired. Other tools and listings are available, and each library must work out its own pattern of selection and procurement. Unquestionably public libraries receive and use too few Federal publications and have not found short cuts to publicize and use them.

The Superintendent of Documents does not require or recommend any

one method of arranging government documents. Most depository libraries shelve them in a separate collection arranged according to the GPO classification number, which appears in the *Monthly Catalog*, and depend on the author, title and subject indexes of the *Monthly Catalog*. Nondepository libraries often catalog Federal Government publications or put them in the vertical file depending on their size and importance. Many depository libraries catalog and classify important documents too, such as decennial census reports and the *Statistical Abstract*, and regularly secure extra copies of them.

Some larger libraries file such Federal periodicals as *Monthly Labor Review* and *School Life* with the regular magazines, and put many other items in the vertical files. Selected hard-cover books or thick paper-covered items and important bulletin series, such as Office of Education *Bulletins*, are often cataloged and placed on the regular shelves. All other items could remain in a special documents collection, arranged by the Superintendent of Document's code number. Those items treated specially are then so indicated on the cards of the check-in file. The practices of larger libraries are summarized in print.²⁸ A guide to the handling, promotion and use of documents in libraries serving less than 75,000 population is much needed. Federal documents will never be extensively utilized until Uncle Sam publishes a monthly or quarterly subject index, of the same practical character as the Wilson indexes, to the detailed contents of at least the most generally useful half of its current publications. Until then few libraries can afford the time required to find the material on a given subject, except as suggested above.

Unlike Federal documents, state government publications are not well listed, indexed or distributed. The Library of Congress's *Monthly Checklist of State Publications* lists many, and many states issue a frequent compilation of new publications. Local government publications are even more elusive, but every public library should maintain a file of them. The publication and distribution of United Nations documents are well organized, but relatively few are essential except in very large libraries. Libraries can popularize document use by making them more available, by displays and by publicizing them in the newspapers. Federal publications in depository as well as nondepository libraries may be loaned for home use. Some libraries sell GPO coupons to patrons who wish to purchase their own copies of documents. Others sell directly copies of particularly useful documents.

CUSTODY OF THE COLLECTION

Access to the Collection

All public libraries are concerned with custody of their collections. Small and medium-sized public libraries tend to have all their books on open

shelves to which the public has access. Such books must be put in order as often as once a day for heavily used sections. Large libraries in addition to their open shelves have closed stack collections, usually of older books; these too must be kept in order and made available to patrons. Requests are usually presented in the form of call slips and are handled by young assistants, called pages; the extra work and resultant reader frustrations have resulted in having most of the book stock on open shelves in public rooms of the modern library. Pages also read the shelves, get materials needed by the professional staff, charge out materials on loan and discharge them when returned, check in current issues of magazines, and perform many other functions. Reference is made in Chapter 17 to their work, their training and development.

Theft and Mutilation

Theft and mutilation are baffling problems.²⁴ A determined thief cannot be absolutely prevented from making off with a book. In all except very large libraries, the use of guards at the library entrance costs more money and good will than the value of the lost books. Yet there are precautions, such as placing the loan desk next to or across the entrance and requiring a signature and address for the use within the building of expensive technical books, which need to be taken.

Two methods to reduce mutilation are to remove the temptation by substituting microfilm for bound newspapers, and to persuade the local school staff not to require or encourage illustrated notebooks on subjects where text and pictures are found mainly in library books and magazines. Staff members should glance over reading rooms to detect defacers. Loan desk assistants should be trained to riffle through the pages of each returned book, partly to spot mutilations. The library should have an established scale of charges for such damages, and provision by law for penalties for the most serious cases. Readers of all ages need to be reminded from time to time how to care for books.

Restricted Use

Some restrictions are necessary, such as keeping in locked cases or on closed shelves those books which are expensive or likely to be stolen. This is justifiable. But when books are controversial or deal frankly with sex, the use of restricted shelves is a form of censorship. Libraries must choose what books to buy but those acquired should be available to all. On the other hand some librarians do not believe that books for married persons should necessarily be on open shelves for high school students. Other types of justifiable restrictions include reserve shelves of books assigned to students or in great demand for short periods. Children are usually denied access to

library motion picture films and phonograph records, to avoid excessive damage.

Inventory

Up to thirty years ago it was common practice to inventory the entire book collection every two or three years by comparing the shelf list with the books on the shelves and with the "out" book cards in circulation trays. Books found missing in two inventories were considered lost and the catalog cards removed. Today few public libraries take regular, complete inventories, because experience has shown that loss rates are low—less than 1 per cent of the book stock per year—and the cost of a complete inventory of a large or medium-sized library is high. With some of the modern circulation methods it is possible but not easy to check books which are on loan.³² Individual titles which are sought and not found over several months may be considered lost. They should either be replaced or their catalog cards withdrawn. Books in greatest demand disappear soonest. The routine of reserving books affords the promptest way to discover that a book is missing, and it should be replaced promptly. The insurance of books is discussed in Chapter 32.

WEEDING AND EVALUATING THE COLLECTION

Weeding

As book selection is continuous so should be weeding the collection of outdated and wornout materials. Definite standards and policies should be formulated.³⁶ In the case of most public libraries it is far better to have a smaller collection of live and currently useful materials than a larger but less useful one. It definitely costs money just to house books; many libraries crying for book-space additions would do better to discard outdated books. Large university, research and state libraries keep materials and can be called on for interlibrary loans. Most public libraries find it economical to discard books more than thirty years old, many libraries would say twenty years, which have not been used once in the last ten years, some say five years, and which appear to have no further use, save perhaps for historical interest; they can be borrowed from a research library when needed.

In many subjects books are quickly outdated and should be discarded even sooner. Evidently the use of library material drops off rapidly the older it becomes, even in college libraries. Of 10,000 circulations of books in the field of personal health from the Evansville (Ind.) Public Library published between 1918 and 1958, 52 per cent were of books in the first five years after their acquisition.³⁷ In a 1949 study at Stanford University and a 1953

study at the University of Chicago only 1 per cent and 3 per cent of books borrowed had been published more than thirty years.^{38, 39}

Just as the entire professional staff should share in selection so should they participate in weeding, assigning each member an approximately equal part of the collection but according to subject competence and interests, with a goal to re-evaluate all books about once every five years—whether to repair or replace by a new edition or a new copy, dispose of duplicates or get new copies of standards, reclassify or withdraw.

Preliminary weeding, according to definite standards of age, frequency of recent circulation, listing in the *Standard Catalog for Public Libraries* or other such bibliography, etc., can be done by experienced nonprofessional personnel, especially in branch libraries, for review later by a trained librarian who knows books. The judgment of experienced staff members who work directly with books is remarkably accurate in estimating circulations and reference value. The actual circulation of a book is so useful in weeding the collection that the number of recorded loans should be summarized, when a date due slip or book card is used up and replaced, and recorded on the new slip or card. With transaction card charging an equivalent record can be secured by making a stroke on the date due slip by year, each time the book is borrowed or returned. This is *not* to say that only these books should be acquired which are sure to circulate often, for the library should include important books likely to be borrowed only a few times but not otherwise conveniently available. But after fifteen or twenty years their future value should be reassessed in the light of actual use.

Mistakes in weeding just as in selecting are inevitable. Weeding cannot be infallible. In a collection of 100,000 volumes about 5,000 volumes should be withdrawn each year. This rate, recommended in the A. L. A. Standards,⁴⁰ is a fair average of actual practice. In weeding large quantities of books, undoubtedly some will be withdrawn which may be asked for later, but they can be had through interlibrary loan. Mistakes in not withdrawing books are even more frequent, but are less likely to be noticed. They result in clogging the shelves (and the card catalog) and in wasting funds for their continued custody. They can be a positive disservice, as in the case of a twenty-year-old book on cancer giving a less favorable prognosis than modern medicine allows.

The basic guidelines for weeding the collection should be laid down in the statement of book selection policy, by indicating those subject fields in which greater emphasis or depth will be sought and accepted. In most cases a second revision should verify the judgment of the first, considering whether the book is "live" enough for some other agency of the library. Nonbook materials should likewise be reviewed at intervals for possible discard.

After decision to withdraw, the cataloging department corrects all necessary records and handles final disposition of the volume. The paperwork on

this should be as simple as possible. Few books withdrawn from a public library will fetch any money return. But occasionally a withdrawn volume has a monetary value or is out of print and needed by university or research libraries, and a knowledgeable person should scan the books just before scrapping them.⁴¹ The bulk of withdrawn books have no value except to give to institutions in depressed parts of the country. Some may be useful for their pictures or may be offered for sale to students and others at a nominal price. A set pattern of possibilities should be specified for quick disposition of withdrawn volumes; that is, they should not linger around the building more than five or six months. No librarian likes to see a book destroyed if it can still be used.

Evaluating the Book Collection

Every good librarian senses the worth of his library's book collection and constantly asks himself and his colleagues questions that lead to its improvement. This comes from working with books. Objective measures of the value of the collection are needed, partly as a check on the validity of the selection policy with reference to the various subject fields, and partly to identify titles which should be added or discarded. Checking *The Standard Catalog for Public Libraries*, or other appropriate bibliography or combination of lists, against the card catalog, is the favorite test. This shows up titles not in the collection which should at least be considered. The Wilson Company lists are mainly the results of the pooled judgments of practicing librarians rather than subject experts, and reflect pretty well the probable demands of public library users. Seldom does a library hold all the titles on any such selected and comprehensive list; usually it holds considerably more of the titles listed in certain fields than in others. No such list is perfect, nor does it fulfill the objectives of every library. An alternative method of evaluation is to check the cards for books in the collection against several retrospective, selective and evaluative bibliographies. Titles held but not found in any of these lists should be considered for withdrawal; this also shows up older titles which are not held and which are worth considering.

There are other measures of the value of a collection. Subject specialists in the local community usually are willing to examine the books in their fields, to discard some and suggest important new items. Older titles requested by readers and titles borrowed on inter-library loan may be important enough for purchase, depending on how long they have been published. Information is available on various quantitative aspects of book collections of other libraries and their rating by a given checklist of titles.⁴² Evaluation can also result from in-service training programs for the professional staff on book selection policy, the criteria for weeding and the strength and weaknesses of the collection. Establishing any precise basis,

formula or method either to select, discard or evaluate a book collection is not likely to become a reality; these are intangibles. Evaluation of the book collection should be done regularly. If a library has only "good" books on a given subject, only good books can be borrowed. But there is evidence to indicate that readers do not distinguish to any significant degree between "good" books and "bad" ones, but borrow each according to their ratio in a library's collection. All the greater is the obligation that the library choose excellent books.

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36. Wisconsin Free Library Commission. *Weeding the Library: Suggestions for the Small Libraries*. rev. ed. 11 p. 1949. Madison, Wis. Also "Weeding Your Library." *Iowa Library Quarterly*. 16: 138-141. Apr. 1951. Two general practical discussions, with many examples.

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39. Gilbert E. Donahue. "The Library of the Cowles Commission for Research in Economics." *Illinois Libraries*. 37: 89-94. March 1955.

40. *Public Library Service*, op. cit. p. 35.

41. American Book Prices Current (annually). And Merle Johnson's *American First Editions*. 4th ed. 553 p. 1942. Bowker.

42. LeRoy C. Merritt. *The Good Books in American Public Libraries: A Summary*. Univ. of Illinois Library School Occasional Papers. no. 60. 6 p. Dec. 1960. See also the sections on book collections, in various survey reports which can be borrowed from A.L.A. Headquarters Library.

CHAPTER 28

Administration of Order Work and Cataloging

PURPOSES AND ORGANIZATION OF THE TECHNICAL SERVICES

This chapter is not a condensed manual of cataloging and classifying practice. It is concerned with the ways in which the acquiring, cataloging, classifying and other preparation of materials are organized and managed, and with certain aspects and viewpoints which affect size of staff and economics in operation.

To evaluate a book and its author's purpose, to catalog and classify it in its strategic place in the library's collection so it may be most useful to the public, are tasks requiring a high degree of technical skill, intelligence, imagination and judgment. Administrators, laymen and public officials often fail to comprehend the vital role of the cataloging and classifying process in today's library, if they think of it as a routine clerical performance or one which can be done by mechanical devices. Quite the contrary. It is in the catalog department that intelligent librarians determine the scope and objectives of a book and the subject headings and other guideposts which bring it to the attention of the greatest number of readers and information searchers. Efficiency and economy are compatible with high respect for the intellectual content of the cataloger's contribution.¹⁻⁵

THE TECHNICAL SERVICES DEPARTMENT

Departmental objectives should be clearly understood. Three major criteria of accomplishment are: (a) the promptness, after publication date, with which new books are made ready for readers; (b) the good judgment shown in finding the sensible mean between elaborate bibliographical detail and insufficient detail to meet the needs of the great majority of a

library's users; and (c) the cost of the technical services in time and money.

In the smallest library one staff member does all these things. But a large library may have separate departments for order work, cataloging and classifying, binding and mechanical preparations, with someone heading each of the four and possibly a "coordinator," or a technical services department head, to oversee all these services. In most medium-sized libraries, from 25,000 to 200,000 population, there is a separate catalog department. Since order work requires roughly about one-fifth the time involved in cataloging and classifying, it is often supervised by the librarian, with the clerical work of which it is chiefly comprised done by typists, possibly in the office, at the switchboard, etc.

Since the 1930's several large libraries have combined order work, cataloging and perhaps binding and repair into one organizational unit often termed "technical services department," with an overall supervisor.⁶ This joins closely related operations, but it may not eliminate duplication of efforts and records unless the working tools and materials are brought close together for all to use. Even then it may not bring success or repay its cost. Proximity and interchange may be more profitable than overhead union. The idea of a technical services department has two interpretations: (a) the desirability of having three functions, all related to the flow of books into the library and their physical care, combined under one able head, logically that of the catalog department. This simple organizational device reduces the librarian's span of control and gives flexibility in assigning work among the three parts of a combined operation.

But many head catalogers are unenthusiastic about these allied activities because they call for more administrative, delegative and supervisory ability than some of them possess, even to manage the catalog department itself efficiently, however adept they may be as catalogers. As a result, this logical desire to combine related work has in a number of large libraries led to a somewhat expensive remedy, (b) the creation of a technical services department involving an added and high-salaried position for a superhead or line executive (though sometimes called "coordinator") over the three other heads, including the head cataloger.⁷

Where a decision to reorganize is based on idea (a) an effective solution is usually found, but the results and costs from solution (b) have not always proved a good investment, and recently fewer libraries have adopted this device. To improve conditions under idea (a) steps should be taken to develop the chief cataloger's ability, as suggested in Chapters 6 and 14, to plan, manage, delegate and supervise, and to relieve him of enough cataloging detail so that he can extend his span of control over the order and bindery work. If he cannot handle this larger responsibility he should either be relieved of his administrative responsibilities and a better cataloger-manager found, or the persons in charge of order and bindery activities should have their interest and ability developed as managers and time

savers in their respective areas. This falls short of the original aim and leaves the librarian still with three units to oversee, though such supervision may not absorb much time and it saves a new super-salary.

The cataloging of all books for all of a library's agencies should be handled in one department, except in a few special situations in very large cities. For example, both adult and children's books should be cataloged in the same department, and close contacts maintained with the children's department, as by having the latter approve disputed headings and class numbers more appropriate to children's needs than those used in the adult departments. Other variations in processing are needed for phonograph records, films, paper-covered books and recreational fiction. The head of a good catalog department constantly assesses the appropriateness of its procedures and devises improved methods. In short, the order and cataloging work are not an end in themselves; they should be planned, performed and measured in terms of meeting the needs of the public service departments. For this reason periodic experience of catalogers in public departments is often recommended and many libraries schedule them part time for reference service.

Simplifying Methods in Technical Processes

A library can improve the functioning of its technical processes by studying, simplifying and saving time in its routines, and improving the quality of results, thus reducing the unit cost. The vague feeling by many administrators that ordering and cataloging procedures cost too much for the results achieved should give way to a detailed study of methods by both the technical services personnel and the administrator himself, as suggested in Chapter 11.⁸

Physical conditions, for example, are especially important because the staff works intensively without much moving about. Unless technical processes are on the same floor with the main catalog, an official catalog is almost a necessity, but this is seldom possible except in larger libraries. The continued neglect by librarians and consultants of the importance of putting related work in proximity to save staff time creates costly unnecessary problems for many librarians. A layman might naturally think that the order and catalog work should be near the receiving room where books come in. But time loss in getting packages of books from the shipping room to the catalog room is negligible compared with time lost in essential contacts and interchange of ideas as to individual books with main floor service departments. This raises the question of the desirability of having a main floor large enough to include the catalog department, or having a staff elevator direct from catalogers on an upper level to the public catalog on the main floor.

Practices may be perpetuated long after they are useful. A systematic

examination of each step can usually eliminate unprofitable details and travel, permitting much greater output per person. For example, most libraries no longer record the dealer, price, etc. inside the book, for in replacing they have to look up the current price anyway. Books should be moved the fewest times, the shortest possible distance, with the fewest possible handlings. All cards and records should be made simultaneously wherever possible, instead of in a series of steps. Method simplification applies equally in libraries of all sizes.

Division of Work

Each step in the technical processes should be specifically assigned to an individual employee. Many steps are of the clerical type, but in the past have been performed by professional personnel. The long-term shortage of trained librarians has resulted in a re-examination of this situation. Routine repetitive work can be done by clerical assistants with properly clear instruction and adequate supervision, and more of it can be mechanized. The dividing line between professional and nonprofessional work in this field is continually moving up as better techniques of work organization are employed.⁶

The use of machines in the technical processes applies primarily to the large library and to the duplication of cards. There is no point in using a machine unless it reduces costs, speeds up the operation or improves the quality of work. Not all machines, however, are expensive and complicated; the typewriter, electric eraser, pasting machine and such devices as printed multiple-copy order slips and binding instruction slips save time.

The basic core of cataloging, its decisions, cannot be done by electronic machines. Educated and professionally trained librarians must analyze the subject content of books, and classify them according to library policy and reader needs, on the basis of individual judgments and intellectual capacity. Professional librarians are needed for these decisions as well as to plan and organize the operation, establish policy, supervise and review the work of others, evaluate results and improve the system. These are all aspects of management, and all staff members should engage continuously in testing, revising and improving policies, procedures and methods.

ORDER WORK (ACQUISITIONS)

Order Routines

The major concerns of order work are (1) to see that those who select books keep up with new titles, with the various types of library materials

and with changes in their major sources of supply; (2) to secure the maximum discount consistent with other costs and services; and (3) to prepare and place orders promptly and deliver to the catalog department the books as promptly as possible, there to be prepared for readers' use.

Order work is closely tied to the interests of all book-using departments, the branches and the business office. The mechanics, though not the consideration-plus-decisions for book selection (described in Chapter 27), should be centralized at the order desk or department. The order section of a good-sized library will check titles considered for purchase to prevent unintentional duplication, and consolidate all orders from departments and branches. While it may be necessary to order separately the first or main library copies of important titles, to make them promptly available to readers, the branch copies should, if possible, be ordered at one time and be processed together, to avoid repetitions.

Library patrons are keenly aware of delays in obtaining new books after they have seen the titles advertised or reviewed. An efficient library orders books promptly and at least once a week if the book budget is over \$10,000 a year (an average of fifty or sixty books a week); if over \$1,000 a year, fortnightly; for smaller libraries, at least monthly. A prime objective is to have new books in hand, cataloged and on reader shelves by publishers' release dates. Special "rush" orders and "rush" cataloging are essential ("rush" meaning immediate attention, twenty-four-hour cataloging, but not haste and careless work); special orders for replacement copies of older titles, pamphlets, paper-covered books, prebound juveniles, phonograph records and films are also necessary. Periodicals are usually ordered by a blanket subscription as noted later.

The main record in an order section is its order file, on cards or slips, of books on order and not yet received. Larger libraries may keep a file of books received and not yet processed, but as every such record is a burden it should not be needed if the books are processed promptly. If the library uses multiple-copy order forms,¹⁰ one may be kept in the order file until the catalog cards are ready, and thus serve as an automatic record of books in process; but any separate process record except in large, slow-moving libraries should be looked on as wasteful. Efficiency comes not from such records but from direct, simple, prompt processing within two or three days after receipt. In the absence of an accession record, the order department may keep the file of paid invoices, filed chronologically, and often with the first item given its respective accession number. Some libraries which have given up an accession book but have branches use an accession number to identify duplicate copies of books, and a clerical assistant stamps this serial number on invoices and books (perhaps also on book cards and pockets).

A want list of titles desired but out of print or "can't afford yet" should be kept by the appropriate public service departments to be checked against

dealers' catalogs and gift books, or orders for o.p. titles can be placed in the hands of a dealer. A special central desiderata list is probably not worth its time cost in cities of under 500,000 population.

Most order departments keep the record of book expenditure by agency, by month or quarter and perhaps by type of material or even type of books. These categories should be kept at a minimum unless other records, such as gift copies vs. bought books, can be proved essential. Because of varying discounts and "shorts," invoices and orders never completely agree and it will save much time if expenditures for book allotment accounts are recorded by totaling the bills received rather than orders placed. Each month or two the order department should prepare a statement showing each agency's annual allotment for materials, and how much has been spent to date. More detailed expenditure figures are unnecessary if each agency will roughly estimate its outstanding orders and the free balance available.

The order department checks books received from dealers against the invoices and order records. Invoices when cleared are passed to the business office for payment and accounting. At this time the order record slip is laid into one copy of each title, as are any available L.C. cards or proofslips, Wilson printed cards, transcription of entry from *Publishers' Weekly*, or other pre-cataloging work slip. Depending on the assignment of books to the catalogers, by type or subject, the books may be separated into those categories at this time, be put on trucks and rolled to the desks of the appropriate persons. Usually the separation of books and their assignment to catalogers and typists is handled in the catalog department, a good example of the value of proximity or combination of these two aspects of the work.

In the typical order department all these aspects of order work can be handled by intelligent, interested nonprofessionals after instruction and some experience, at an annual rate of about 15,000 volumes per full-time assistant.

Relations with Dealers

Libraries sometimes buy books from a local book store, and a number of publishers are willing to sell direct. Almost universally, however, public libraries buy books from a jobber or wholesaler. Two jobbers alone, for example, supply over 10,000 library customers and one carries 70,000 titles in stock. A local bookstore can usually supply rush or special orders but it cannot be expected to give attractive discounts or special services. A public library is under no obligation to buy its books locally, for local dealers cannot carry the stock, or give the discount or service, of a jobber. On the other hand, every library must deal directly with some publishers, who sell their books direct and in no other way. In other cases the publisher offers no discount or no greater discount to a jobber than to a library, and the jobber will not bother with such orders. Very large libraries might find it

to their advantage to buy all books direct from publishers if they can obtain full discounts. But for most libraries the substantial saving on paperwork and the greater convenience of dealing with one efficient, experienced jobber outweigh any possible higher discount which may be received from some individual publishers when ordering direct.¹¹ In fact, most publishers prefer not to deal with public libraries, especially for single copy orders, and will refer them to a jobber.

At 1961 prices, a book jobber would in general give public libraries a minimum of 20-25 per cent discount on trade books (zero to 15 per cent on technical and text books), and about 33 per cent on a volume of up to \$5,000 a year. At \$30,000 a year, the discount might be 36 or 37 per cent, greater discounts for a larger volume of business, though few jobbers go above 37 per cent. A library can save a great amount of paperwork by contracting to buy all its books at a given discount from one well-equipped jobber. The increase in book prices between 1930 or 1947 and 1960, has been thoroughly reported elsewhere.¹² Competitive bids on discounts should be asked every two or three years, from several jobbers, before making a contract specifying services expected, such as prompt and prepaid delivery at least weekly or fortnightly (with reports on titles not delivered in thirty or sixty days), as well as any exceptions to be observed, such as the library's right to subscribe to book clubs. There should also be provision for cancellation of the contract for stated reasons. Librarians and trustees often overlook the fact that prompt, accurate, intelligent service and billing save so much staff paperwork time that they are more important than 1 or 2 per cent difference in discount.¹³

Soliciting competitive bids for periodicals usually results in little difference between the net prices; far more advantageous (if permitted in public contracts) is the inclusion of three-year subscriptions and of the "till forbid" system of periodical subscriptions which saves money and reduces paperwork to a minimum. Ordering priced pamphlets is best done from a pamphlet agency such as the Bacon Pamphlet Service, Northport, N. Y., and the Pamphlet Distributing Co. in New York City, because the costs of locating, writing direct and paying separately for each pamphlet will exceed the list price of many of them.

Relations with Municipal Offices

Individual libraries vary in their freedom to order books, from complete independence of action to total dependence on the purchasing office of the city, county or school board. Centralized purchasing of municipal supplies which are standard and used by several agencies is undoubtedly desirable and economical and can be made to work efficiently, including their stockpiling. But library books involve a continual stream of individual items, each different, each of comparatively small cost, with probable changes in

the status of each book, i.e., not yet published, or out of print, out of stock, will be available again in a month or two, etc. Buying library books, with all their individual peculiarities, special discounts and billings, through a city purchasing office is wasteful in useless paperwork; it saves nothing and delays the service. Each authority who has studied this problem has recommended that the ordering of library books and related materials be exempted from the general pattern of centralized purchasing.¹⁴

In several cities with central purchasing, after officials have understood these factors they have modified or interpreted the rules so that the library prepares and mails the book orders, and clears the invoices, sending carbons to the city officer to file with the warrant or voucher copy. In some cities they have set up blanket annual or quarterly requisitions to jobbers, by lump-sum warrants and by other devices, especially when there is an annual contract based on competitive discount bids.¹⁵ All this paperwork should not be duplicated at the taxpayers' expense.¹⁶

The problem of closing out the book fund, and not overspending at the fiscal year's end, arises from the fact that purchase orders for books are certain to be outstanding, in order to keep constant the inflow of new books; titles ordered may not show up for several months. Outstanding orders represent commitments of current funds, whereas in some cities it is not permissible to carry over into the next fiscal year the encumbered funds so represented. It is no solution to suggest that all book purchases be completed early enough in the fiscal year so that there are no such outstanding and unfilled orders;¹⁷ this disregards readers' rights to an uninterrupted flow of new books. Such unfilled and outstanding book orders are an inevitable factor (for active book flow and good service) and do not vary appreciably from year to year as a percentage of total purchases (about 10 per cent at any one time). If these orders are figured as an obligation or a carry-over at the year's end and, together with any bills received in excess of available funds in the current budget, are carried into the next fiscal year, the library can avoid (a) overspending; (b) carrying forward any substantial obligations; and (c) slowing down the inflow of new books for which the public is waiting. The librarian should seek the advice and assistance of the appropriate officials, and explain these problems, not to evade or break the law, or to make an exception for the library, but to use whatever methods can be found to meet the operating needs of the library and the spirit of the law.

Relations with the Catalog Department

Obviously the order and cataloging operations should proceed in adjoining space with no barrier between. If the catalog department head has general oversight of the order work, the relationship will be simple and flexible; for example, he can decide without involved discussion what data

shall be put in the books before they move from the order work stations to the cataloger's shelves or desks.

If the order department is responsible for securing the bibliographical information needed for completing the order cards, it must use the card catalog, *Publishers' Weekly*, publishers' announcements and other tools, most of which are also used by the catalogers. All these tools and the tables and stands to use them should be located between the order and the cataloging personnel to avoid wasted travel. The order department needs a large table on which to open, spread out and compare the books against their invoices, and sufficient shelving for the usual flow of books. The placement of work stations deserves the sort of study described in Chapter 11. Most order departments handle incoming periodicals, documents, free material and other categories, and the head has to plan and assign each of these added responsibilities.

CATALOGING AND CLASSIFYING

We come now to the operations wherein each book is to be evaluated and given the class number and the catalog card headings which will make it most useful. Contrasting viewpoints definitely influence the whole objective, organization and methods of this work in each library. A conscientious cataloger wishes to study alternate possibilities to reach a wise decision. The administrator and, in the background, the inquiring reader and taxpayer wants the job done in the shortest possible time. Some librarians and catalogers cannot feel easy unless the cards in the public catalog have all the detail and impressiveness of those issued by the Library of Congress. Others are satisfied with the much simpler ones furnished by H. W. Wilson Co. But using centrally-prepared or printed cards may involve delay in getting books to the readers, even when combined with book purchase orders at a commercial or regional operating center. Until "cataloging-in-source" (explained below) has become a reality, most libraries which serve over 15,000 population and which have a trained cataloger, can handle their own cataloging (a) economically; (b) with the new books reaching reader shelves within a few days of publishers' release dates; (c) with sufficient detail, accuracy and good judgment as to author, class number and subject headings to produce an efficient catalog. There is nothing magical about a printed card. The elaborate detail on L.C. cards is of value in only a few large scholarly libraries where bibliographical completeness is looked for. A neatly typed card, produced in the library, without the paperwork of sending for, receiving, filing and finding printed cards may be the solution for many libraries which are now in the 1960's withholding books from prospective readers for weeks or months just to assure more perfect or more beautifully turned-out cards than are essential.

Assigning Work

In large libraries, books may be assigned to different catalogers according to language, or subject, or form of publication, such as serials or government documents. Indeed, in the Library of Congress, descriptive cataloging is separated from subject cataloging and classification. In the small library of up to 25,000 population, one person performs all the cataloging processes. As the staff increases, the processes of varying difficulty and responsibility will be assigned to persons according to the skill, training, experience and ability required for each task. Usually one person catalogs and classifies nonfiction titles, because both steps involve an understanding of a book's subject and coverage. If children's books are assigned to one cataloger, he soon learns how to assign subject headings and classify them more effectively.

For economy, professional librarians are assigned to duties requiring educational background and special training in making policy decisions, overall supervision, evaluation and planning, as well as the decisions for the cataloging and classification of nonfiction books.¹⁸ All that can be done by experienced nonprofessional and clerical assistants should be so assigned: filing, typing, reproducing cards, handling added copies and cataloging of fiction books, keeping records, finding and bringing much of the needed data to the professionals, and all the marking, pasting and other preparatory processes.

Nonprofessionals need adequate in-service training (discussed in Chapters 15 and 16), competent supervision and encouragement to contribute to the improvement of the order and cataloging process. Each clerical assistant should be acquainted with several different parts of the department's work, to permit shifts in assignments. This instruction and supervision of the nonprofessionals may well be assigned to an able assistant, thus relieving the head of the department.

All clerical assistants in the central library, or at least all part-time clerical employees, might be supervised by one person, to insure proper use of their time where most needed, if care is taken not to divide authority over the same person between two or more departments. Alert nonprofessional employees are often able to suggest improvements in the work process, and should be encouraged to do so, for this makes them feel more a part of the team. Other things being equal, typists should work adjoining the catalogers; books and cards can then be easily passed across, and this encourages the catalogers to release more duties which the nonprofessionals can well perform.

The use of temporary cataloging should be avoided, especially if it is aimed at replacing a home-made card by a printed card later or simply to have uniform and extra-detailed cards from Library of Congress or some card supplier. This does not mean that a carbon of the order slip could not

be filed in the public catalog to show readers whether and when the book was ordered, to be removed when the book is actually cataloged. To the proposal that a sort of preliminary cataloging be done and then scrapped when the ultimate card is ready, the answer is prompt cataloging when the books arrive; the catalogers can work directly from them and make decisions and final cards which meet the library's standards.

CATALOGING FROM OUTSIDE SOURCES

The whole series of questions as to costs, promptness of getting new books into readers' hands and the possibilities of avoiding duplicated effort by various forms of cooperative or centralized cataloging comprise a set of administrative problems for every individual library. To say that "cooperative cataloging may make local cataloging almost unnecessary" may be oversimplification. And the use of printed cards bought from Library of Congress or H. W. Wilson Co. involves both delay and extra paperwork to help the local library get its books cataloged.

Regional and Cooperative Cataloging

Obviously it is prompter and cheaper for a large library to catalog a number of copies of a title than to have catalogers in a number of nearby libraries all work on their copies of the same title at about the same time and with about the same results.¹⁹ To be sure, these copies would have to be done in the same way, and individual libraries would have to accept certain minor departures from what they had been doing. This is the basic objective of the regional and other centralized cooperative cataloging projects. The few commercial cataloging services which have sprung up will make some adjustments in their procedures to meet the wishes of individual libraries, but at an extra cost. When analyzed these differences of detail between libraries turn out to be inconsequential.

In this book we can do little justice to the organization and operation of cooperative projects in which cataloging, classifying and possibly ordering and complete preparation are done at a central point. The rapid changes and the diversity and complexity of local solutions, some of which are suggested in Chapter 26, would call for an extended analysis and comparison not feasible here. Such analysis, to be useful, would need to break down the libraries studied into size categories, for objectives and costs vary greatly according to the volume of accessions. Since 1950, regional cataloging centers continue to increase rapidly in number, sparked by foundation grants and state and federal aid, and detailed discussion of them is available elsewhere.^{20, 21} Each local library should investigate the pros and cons of joining such a system. Among other drawbacks to central catalog-

ing is the amount of time, recorded and reported in very few accounts, spent in the paperwork of ordering and handling requests and materials back and forth between the headquarters and the local library.

Use of Printed Cards

Wholesale and nationwide duplication of cataloging of the same title is greatly reduced by the use of Library of Congress or H. W. Wilson Co. printed cards. They fill a great need and millions are sold. Yet many libraries which buy these cards, so carefully prepared, still change or simplify class numbers or modify other details, while other libraries do temporary cataloging on receipt of the books and then, when the printed cards arrive, transfer the differences to the printed cards. Further, the total cost of paperwork to obtain the cards, their price and the time to change them to local patterns may be about as much as to catalog the books fully in the first place. There is no special virtue in printed cards for fiction, and many L.C. headings are too complicated for the smaller libraries (the Wilson cards are simpler).

The great bottleneck is the wait for the cards after ordering them, especially in libraries which rightly attempt to order important new books in time to receive and catalog them before the publisher's release date. Though L.C. and the Wilson Co. have reduced this delay considerably, it is still so great that many libraries do their own cataloging. In 1959, of 73 public libraries surveyed, 26 per cent got the largest proportion of their catalog cards from the Library of Congress, 6 per cent from Wilson, 25 per cent by preparing their own cards from L.C. copy and 16 per cent by original cataloging.²²

Though L.C. cataloging is now given in the entries for new books in *Publishers' Weekly*, the listing of new titles has as a result been slowed down, often as much as six weeks, to include the L.C. cataloging decisions and card numbers, a great disservice to all subscribers who do not use P.W. for a cataloging aid. For an individual library to give the prompt service which is its obligation it has to (a) scan publishers' announcements and advertisements, and other sources of advance information; (b) order its books before publication date; (c) order L.C. or Wilson cards by book author and title; (d) hope that by the time the book arrives the cards will have arrived; and (e) be generally disappointed and therefore compelled to go ahead with its own cataloging. We are speaking of important new adult nonfiction titles. New fiction need not wait for printed cards, for it is comparatively simple to catalog locally. Many libraries no longer even try to ascertain the real names of pseudonymous authors; readers almost always ask for books by the author's name as given in the book.

Through two or three commercial organizations, libraries can now order their books and have them arrive accompanied by the L.C. cards, obviating

the separate local ordering, filing and unfileing of L.C. cards or galley slips as well as the major jobs of cataloging and classifying. How promptly a library will receive its books plus cards and whether the saving in time locally will equal the service charge for this central operation plus the inescapable remaining paperwork and delay will have to be tested out by the subscribing libraries, for many libraries may continue to make their own adaptations of some details.

In many libraries a clerical assistant now receives the proof slips of L.C. cards, arranges them alphabetically (including many which will never be used), checks new book orders against the proof-slip file, and attaches to the order slip of a title any proof slip so found, to be put into the book when it is received and routed to a cataloger. A professional worker has to scan and eliminate the slips which evidently won't be needed. Obviously a great deal of time is involved in this routine.

Cataloging-in-Source

Many librarians are not reconciled to the failure of the Library of Congress to overcome the difficulties of "cataloging-in-source," i.e., getting publishers' galley proofs of forthcoming books, cataloging from them, and printing inside the finished book the full copy for the L.C. catalog card.²² Libraries and others would then have, in the book itself, all the information from which to prepare their own catalog cards as an almost completely clerical job. The time saving and avoidance of delay would be enormous as compared even with centralized regional or cooperative cataloging. The publishers cooperated in the experiment and could be expected to participate on a permanent basis. Perhaps not over four or five thousand important nonfiction titles per year need be involved, the cataloging need not be done by or at the L.C., and each card done from page proofs of the books could so state, so that the very few large libraries which insist on minor bibliographic exactness could procure finally revised L.C. cards. The entire service of public libraries to their readers will be slower, and their cataloging costs will continue needlessly high, until cataloging-in-source is a reality.

THE CATALOGING PROCESS

We describe next the work to be done by a cataloger who has a truck of new nonfiction books at his desk, each title having a copy of the original order slip and an H. W. Wilson card (or L.C. proof slip) IF it has arrived. (Our interest is not in methods themselves but as they relate to costs.) His job is to prepare a copy slip or a unit or master card, showing the classification number, the correct author entry, the bibliographic description of the title as deemed appropriate for this library, the relevant

subject headings and added entries. How much of this can be simplified?

The majority of public libraries now use the Dewey decimal classification, which is up-to-date and so nearly universal as to make centralized classification possible. Changes in successive editions of the Dewey classification schedules should be considered carefully before being adopted, and they should be applied only to new books until it is clearly desirable (and possible) that the older books be reclassified, for this redoing of older books is costly. If reader interest classification is used, it should be not in place of but in addition to Dewey.

Use of the Dewey system and of L.C. cards should not be allowed to result in classification numbers of formidable length. As a realistic formula it is suggested that libraries serving not over 25,000 population use no subdivision (to the right of the decimal), that libraries of not over 50,000 use only one digit after the decimal, those with populations of 50,000 to 100,000 use two digits, and those with populations of 100,000 and upward use three digits, in those subjects which *need* this much dividing. The Cutter number, designed to arrange alphabetically by authors' names all books under a given class number, is being replaced by the first initial of the last name of the author and in some libraries has been abandoned altogether, as the author's surname appears on the back of most books. This saves a step in the cataloging process, and is no handicap in small or medium-sized public libraries or in most branches of large systems, which would have relatively few books on any one subject.

Bibliographic description of a book needed and useful in the average public library is far less detailed than that appropriate in a large university library, or for a rare book. If a printed card is available and clearly matches the book in hand, few additional cataloging decisions are called for. In these matters it is wise to estimate the cost: is it three or four cents for every extra minute spent, dividing 1,920 hours into a fair average salary of \$5,500? If there is no such card available, it is feasible to prepare a complete copy slip or unit card for the average book in no more than fifteen minutes, as several studies show.²¹ Some such measure as this is needed, not only to plan work and evaluate results, but to discourage perfectionism and dawdling. No file of authority references and no searching for author's name or dates is needed, unless indeed there is an entry already in the catalog for another person with exactly the same name. Pseudonyms should be used as they appear on the title page with at most a cross-reference from the author's real name if known. Societies, institutions and other forms of corporate entry should be treated alike and in as simple a manner as possible. Collation, imprint and notes should be kept to a minimum. It is important to most readers to show the total number of pages and the year published.

For adult fiction and juvenile books the amount and complexity of bibliographic description may be further reduced; many libraries omit

paging altogether. As few cryptic symbols or unusual abbreviations as possible should be used. The general idea is to make a card which will serve well the basic 90 to 95 per cent of all requests for information about the book, even if it does not satisfy completely the occasional need for more detailed information about it. This is one reason why many school and public libraries prefer Wilson to L.C. cards.

Subject Cataloging

The careful assignment of subject headings, class numbers and other details of entries is important indeed. Public library patrons use the subject approach to the catalog more often than they use author and title combined.²³ But this is not in itself justification for a separate subject catalog; the most useful catalog for the public library has authors, titles and subjects in one alphabet. Deciding on subject headings is difficult and it is made more so by the changing nature of words and subject phrases, by the unforeseeable developments of subject knowledge, by the vagaries of readers' interests, all complicated by the time dimension.

There is no easy answer to keeping all subject entries continuously current in terminology, internally consistent and correctly descriptive of the contents of books, but much time can be saved by adopting either the Sears' *List of Subject Headings* for libraries up to 200,000 population, or the Library of Congress list, and thus utilizing the immense effort involved in their successive revisions. This also avoids maintaining a costly local authority file of headings. To save time in ascertaining the book's scope and coverage use the book jacket or the publisher's announcements to help determine the main subject and what heading will best fit it. "See" references are more profitable than "see also" references; a copy of the Sears or L.C. list at the public catalog may serve as substitute for both. Few books in a public library need more than one or two supplementary subject headings, though these help recover more of the investment in the book and its cataloging, by leading to it readers who have an interest in each field but no knowledge of the specific title. Analytics should be used sparingly. The desirability of updating many subject headings after twenty years (for instance to replace "domestic economy" with "home economics") should prompt a review of the books themselves when they are that old and to the withdrawal of many of them and of their catalog cards.

The common tendency to use the same set of headings for a given book at the main library and at the smallest branch has two aspects. In a very large city library, simpler cards may be needed for small agencies and perhaps also for juvenile books—with fewer subdivisions—and more detailed ones for the main catalog and for adult books. On the other hand two treatments for the same book make extra cost; is it justified? Secondary entries, as for joint authors and series, are of questionable usefulness in any

except very large libraries.²⁴ Updated mimeographed lists for periodical holdings, placed at the catalog and at the reference desks, are more effective than catalog cards, which involve much handling to keep current. Subject headings may be as desirable for fiction as for nonfiction, but a copy of the *Wilson Fiction Catalog* may make these unnecessary. Annotations used on the cards are appreciated by readers but it is rather costly even to clip and paste on the notes from *Publishers' Weekly* or *Library Journal*, or to file the annotated cards available from the latter.

From force of habit and fondness for it, a class number or a subject heading may be overused. This creates formidable blocks of books or cards, and baffles readers and staff in many libraries today, though the use of printed cards makes this less frequent. When noticed, these blocks need to be broken up, by an extra digit, a date heading (to divide books before or after a given year of publication) or in some other fashion to by-pass the older material; much of it may need to be discarded.

The Trend Toward Simplicity of Details on the Cards

Conditions in today's libraries challenge some traditional cataloging dogmas and assumptions. The long-term shortage of catalogers, and the rise in salary costs, make inevitable an acceptance, by administrators, staff members and patrons, of a less meticulous standard of completeness, rigid consistency or accuracy as to secondary details. For example, readers understand a card better when book titles are capitalized. Rather than to prepare against every theoretical bibliographic need, the more useful approach to cataloging for the typical public library is to relate operations and details to frequently demonstrated reader needs and develop an efficient finding list rather than a bibliographical tool. As suggested in Chapters 17 and 26, certain categories of books might well not be cataloged, such as light love, mystery, western, and science fiction, cartoon books, many paperbacked books and children's picture books, all with a relatively short useful life or likely to be chosen by browsing and not through the catalog. Nothing said here is intended to deny the importance of full cataloging in the large city library where many technical and scholarly specialists use the library for research of an intensive sort.

CARD DUPLICATION

When the cataloger has completed his copy slip or master card for each title of a group of new books, often in combination with light pencil marks underlining appropriate information which the typist can copy direct from the title page, a clerical assistant can perform most remaining operations. The typist or duplicator should have her station next to one or two cata-

logers' desks. Chapter 11 suggests a small pallet for moving fifteen or twenty books from desk to desk. The remaining steps are all done according to a formula worked out in advance, incorporated in instruction sheets, and able to be thoroughly mastered by a clerical assistant in even a few months of continuous performance of the same tasks. If she has questions, a more experienced staff member is at hand.

Normally if there is only one copy of a book, it is more economical to type the three or four cards needed than to prepare them by any other process, in the absence of a simple not-yet-developed photoduplicator through which a few standard catalog cards can be passed. At five or more duplicate copies of the same card (without changes on the top line), it is profitable to use some mechanical reproduction, such as mimeograph, multilith, multigraph, Xerox, Elliott stencil, metal plate, Card Master or tape-activated electric typewriter.²⁵ Their purchase and operating costs differ widely, as do their space limitations and flexibility for library purposes.

Some of these methods have the advantage that they can turn out all necessary catalog and shelf-list cards (with subject headings produced in advance in quantity, or added later by hand) and also book cards and book pockets; all needed repetitions of the same information are done at one time, in one way, with one revision of the master copy. But space and cost are involved for filing and storing the master copy device or extra copies of the card so created, or for recreating it upon need, if it is not kept. Count also the time lost, by some methods, in getting the books and/or cards to and from the duplicator and together again for revision. Stencil or metal plate devices are subject to too many limitations proportionate to cost to be generally recommended; their most effective use has been in regional centers and multiple-branch city library systems where many copies are processed. Perhaps just around the corner is the "cataloger's camera," some economical, dry method of nearly instantaneous clear reproduction in small quantities on standard rag-paper card stock.

In weighing the pros and cons of the tape-activated electric typewriter and the IBM or Remington-Rand punched card machines in libraries of 100,000 population and upward, one needs to determine whether these secondary benefits will actually be frequent and substantial enough to warrant the investment.

How Many Catalogs Need Be Maintained?

Duplicating cards is influenced also by the number and types of catalogs maintained. In a small library there will be one dictionary catalog of author, title, subject and other entries for adult and juvenile books. A larger library, with its service departments on the main floor and its catalogers upstairs, may have to take on the burden of a public and an official catalog. This may be avoided if the catalogers' travel route to the public

catalog is shortened. The children's catalog will be the next to be separated, especially if the children's room is on the second floor or in the basement. Branch libraries usually combine juvenile and adult catalogs. A shelf list is almost universal except in small libraries, though for branches it is increasingly considered unessential; the fiction section, at least, duplicates the fiction cards in the catalog in the same order. In larger libraries there may be supplement drawers, special files of individual agencies or even individual staff members, variations in filing rules, inactive files, etc. Three good rules are (a) to issue to the staff a periodic inventory of all card files of any sort in the system, and of their purpose and content; (b) to postpone any new file until urgently needed and to require specific approval from the head of technical processes and the librarian before starting any new file or abandoning an existing one; and (c) to provide when possible for centralized preparation of cards for all catalogs, for standardized filing rules, and for the elimination of overlapping or unessential card files.

Identifying Duplicate Copies

Good public service calls for knowing the present location, within the system, of all copies of each title. In larger libraries there seems to be no practical alternative to keeping this information on the shelf list or on the official catalog card. In both cases patrons and staff must await a telephoned report from (or personal visit to) the catalog department for this information. In small and medium-sized libraries, copy locations can be shown on the cards in the public catalog, but this slows down the transfer of books and results in a sizable work load in correcting locations on all catalog entries for transferred books, a good example of the extra duties which absorb catalog department time. To avoid repeated changes in the location of mobile books, as for deposit loans or for use in small branches, it is possible to show them on the catalog cards as in a certain collection or pool, and with the exact present location of each book recorded only in the charge-out file; but this again requires reference to a second file. Large libraries may find that the punched-card system of preparing book catalogs can be utilized to record and keep up to date (in each cumulation and reprinting of the catalog) the then current location of every copy, but analysis of the steps involved is necessary to show whether this is profitable, as it doubtless is in some of the very large-area systems with many scattered branches, and perhaps in a few large city branch systems.

Filing Cards in the Catalogs

Normally the catalog department files cards into the public catalogs at the main building. Sometimes it also is responsible for filing in branch catalogs, but more often branch personnel do their own filing. Branch

catalogs in many libraries are revised every two or three years by an experienced fast filer. New catalog cards should be distributed and filed promptly, desirably through a supplement drawer to avoid handling individual drawers of the complete catalog every day. But a portion of the supplement is filed into the complete catalog daily so cards will may not be delayed over a week.

Filing rules of most American public libraries, based on the official A. L. A. code,²⁶ are too complicated for most patrons and even many library staff members to understand or remember. In small and medium-sized libraries at least, cards should be arranged in as nearly a straight alphabetical sequence as possible, ignoring punctuation and differing types of entry. Simplified filing rules usually make it possible for card filing to be done by intelligent, interested nonprofessional assistants. Neither the classified catalog nor the divided catalog is of practical value in public libraries, but some attempts are being made at arranging entries under a given subject by date of publication so old material can be passed over.²⁷

Assisting Readers to Use the Catalogs

It is desirable to issue to readers a reasonably brief and current statement of the organization of the catalog, of the usual content of the main types of cards and of the process for securing a book once it has been found in the catalog. This sort of publication is common in academic libraries, but is needed even more in public libraries, which typically serve patrons less well prepared and less motivated to use a catalog. In addition to a pamphlet publication, signs and graphic devices (such as a blown-up catalog card with arrow captions) are useful, and best of all an assistant scheduled at the catalog to help patrons. Much of the work and effort of preparing an excellent catalog is for nought if patrons do not and cannot use it effectively. A recent major study based on interviews with 1,451 patrons in public libraries reported that 79 to 84 per cent success was achieved, depending on whether the subject or known-item approach was used, but relatively few use the catalog.²⁸ A library can improve catalog effectiveness by recurrent studies of patrons' use and non-use and their comments on it.

Other Departmental Activities

The typical catalog department spends time on other essential jobs, such as the processing of maps, phonograph records, and other nonbook materials, or changing the records for withdrawn or transferred books. Few catalog departments escape revision of various aspects of the catalog in the name of better public service, for example, reclassification of individual books or groups of books, cataloging documents or other materials not previously cataloged or recataloging older books to bring them into line with

newer practices. Desirable as these projects may be, they should be regarded critically; often the situation will be resolved in time by the withdrawal of the materials. One library proposed to charge a department's book fund fifty cents for reclassifying each old book into the present system; that ended the idea of embarking on the costly enterprise. Older books cataloged and in closed stacks need not be reclassified. These various duties outside the main flow of new books consume time which often is included in "the cost of cataloging"—one reason why it is so hard to calculate fairly.

THE BOOK PREPARATION PROCESSES

While the unit or master catalog card is being reproduced, the books themselves are being made ready for circulation—i.e., pasting, marking, jacketing, counting—by other assistants. Sometimes in large libraries only one copy of each title goes to the cataloger and the other copies go directly to be processed for use. If so, one of these copies should have an instruction slip or copy of the order slip, showing the destination of each copy. As an aspect of method study, a library needs to determine whether it will save time to keep all cards and their books together, or at what point to type or duplicate their cards, pockets, etc. before pasting and labeling, and then reassemble books and records to make them ready for the public service departments. Also, the book number has to be marked by hand or with a marking appliance on the spine of the book.

Each book must be marked also as library property, preferably by rubber-stamping the edges of the book. Embossing or perforating takes longer and is less effective. An accession or serial number is used in many libraries large enough to have numerous copies of a book, to distinguish the copies, so this is also needed on the book pocket, book cards, and at one place in the book, as well as on the shelf list or official catalog card. A good idea is to stamp these all at one time, using a numbering machine with the last two digits of the current year and then a serial number. Other libraries ignore serial numbering, and write in the copy number when needed. The Potdevin edgegluer is a useful device for pasting pockets into the books and for gluing down the book jacket, if a plastic cover is to be added. In the last several years, plastic covers (at about seven cents apiece minimum in 1961) have made a vast improvement in the appearance of library books, allowing the retention and use of the publisher's book jacket, usually colorful, interesting and valuable for its summary of the book and biography of the author. These preparatory processes should be done promptly and swiftly and the books dispatched to the public service agencies as soon as possible. If each worker visualizes the reader awaiting the book, things will move faster and his day's work will be more interesting.

Statistics

Smaller libraries may be content with one figure of total "books added," which can be taken from the inclusive monthly accession numbers, if any are used. Larger libraries can save time and not delay books if they record their book statistics just before the books leave the catalog department when all processes are finished and books and cards are together. This need not include more than the number of adult fiction, adult nonfiction and juvenile books, and in cities of over 40,000 or 50,000 the number of new books, titles and cards. Withdrawals have to be recorded also, but is it necessary to record the number of gift volumes added each year? The question as to whether more or as many statistics as those just noted are worthwhile should be discussed and decided by those concerned, and the decision incorporated in the instruction book. A simple monthly statistics sheet may be mimeographed, with a cross line per day; thirteen sheets give the year's record and totals.

A carbon copy of the order slip which accompanied the books from their receipt by the order section may now be used to secure removal of another copy of the order slip from the order file where it had been serving as an in-process record IF such record seemed essential; in libraries of up to 100,000 population it seldom is, for books should go through so promptly that it will not be needed. Once ready for use, new books should be delivered immediately to the public service agencies, daily in the case of central library departments and as often as possible (and no less than weekly) in the case of the branches.

A FEW TESTS FOR EVALUATING TECHNICAL PROCESSES

It is desirable to summarize here three objective tests of the department's performance: (1) the elapsed time needed to order, catalog and prepare a book for use and place it on reader shelves; (2) the work load standards, i.e., the number of department staff members needed to do the work; and (3) the cost in salary time. Wide variations in individual libraries will affect the validity of these tests, e.g., the volume of books added, staff ability, the number of catalogs maintained, the degree of bibliographical completeness desired. But the following tests are offered as fair for the average American public library of medium size. Increased skill and use of regional processing centers will improve these standards. But quality of the work is a separate consideration, hard to measure.

"Publication date" of American trade books, formerly two or three weeks after the new books are actually delivered to dealers, seems increasingly only a reference point and not a firm commitment. So it is not easy to

specify a desirable total elapsed time for the technical processes. Assuming some advance notice of a new book and that copies will arrive from the jobber before publication date, it should generally take no more than an average of five weeks from the initial selection of the title to its availability to readers. Where the jobber is within overnight mail distance, this might be cut to four weeks. By tightening up on any possible delay it may be cut to three weeks for many titles. In the book selection system for a 150,000 population city, it may take about two weeks to gather orders for the title from all branches, combine them on one multiple-copy order slip, and forward the order to the jobber. The library without branches should be able to get off its orders inside the week. Assuming that copies of the book are on the shelves of the jobber, as is usual for 90 per cent of the titles, delivery should be made to the library within two weeks. The process of checking-in the books, cataloging them, preparing them for use and delivering the books to the public service agency should take on the average no more than another two weeks. There will be numerous causes that delay this schedule. The jobber may have to be prodded, but paperwork in excess of that recommended here is a major cause of delay. At Dallas Public Library, in 1959, after some improvement, the lapse between original order and delivery from the jobber still averaged fifty days.²⁹ Readers have a right to consider this intolerable, for it is in part within the library's control. On the other hand a "rush" order should be completed at most within three days, assuming that the book is available in a local bookstore.³⁰ The cataloging process itself (classification, descriptive cataloging and subject heading) should in a public library take about fifteen minutes per title on the average, as noted above, and the new book flow should be divided into "prompt" and average, depending on probable or actual reader demand; some libraries are getting top-priority titles to reader shelves within forty-eight hours after they arrive in the building.

Cost figures are even more difficult. There are several layers of costs of varying degrees of relationship to the central processes of ordering, cataloging and book preparation. In general it is best to use figures for direct costs only (salaries and materials) and not to try to allocate indirect and overhead expenses. For a second thing, total *elapsed* time does not vary much for a single copy of a new title, or for a new title with multiple copies going through at the same time, but cost figures are greatly affected by these factors.³¹ It is therefore always desirable, in reporting cataloging cost figures, to specify the ratio of volumes to titles. In terms of 1962 values, it should cost a public library no more than 50 cents a volume in direct costs for ordering, cataloging and book preparation, assuming a ratio of at least three copies per title on the average and a total of about 10,000 volumes. This figure will be questioned; for example, salary costs vary greatly in various regions. Incidentally this figure will be at least doubled if it is calculated simply by dividing total salaries of the technical processes de-

partment by the number of books handled. It is more accurate to conduct a time study of several batches of books (and at least 200 volumes in all) and to convert the time figures into dollars according to the salaries actually paid the persons who did the work.

Elapsed time and average unit cost figures are valuable indexes but are necessarily based on samples and influenced by other considerations. More meaningful and more immediately useful are work load standards which would specify the number of staff members needed for a given total number of books added. As was noted above, an order assistant in the average public library should be able to handle 15,000 volumes a year. A professional cataloger should be able to catalog and classify about 2,500 titles a year, not counting other typical duties. Every member of the nonprofessional staff in the catalog department should be able to account for an average of about 4,000 volumes a year each. These figures take into account vacation time, illness, coffee breaks, etc., as well as some reasonable average of other duties within the department.

Thus for a public library adding 10,000 volumes a year, the technical processes department would consist of a part-time order clerk, a professional cataloger and a half-time nonprofessional assistant (assuming an average of 3 copies per title), and two and a half clerical assistants, or a total staff of five in full-time equivalent. With any such reasonable staff complement there should be no arrearage of books waiting to be cataloged or processed, or of catalog cards for them waiting to be typed or reproduced. Admittedly to meet this goal other duties of the catalog department will have to take second priority, but it is not expected that they will accumulate into a backlog of arrears.

Each library in a community of over 15,000 population should find it profitable to prepare a flow schedule of its cataloging operations, showing each step of the work and to whom it is assigned.²¹

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27. Jackson, *op. cit.* p. 35.
28. *Ibid.* p. 8, 15, 16.
29. Frarey, *op. cit.* p. 44.
30. In the cataloging-in-source experiment, the Library of Congress cataloged 1,200

books in an average of 74 minutes not counting card reproduction and in an elapsed time of less than 8 hours per book, on a non-stop rush basis. Library of Congress. *The Cataloging-in-Source Experiment*, *op. cit.* 1960, p. 20.

31. The authors prepared—and had hoped to include here—flow schedules for a 150,000 population library, based on presumably simplified situations. However, since much experimenting by method-minded catalogers is evidently needed in specific library size categories and under controlled conditions (e.g. with or without Wilson printed cards) to come up with typical examples of minimum flow schedules, it did not seem practical to include them.

CHAPTER 29

Administrative Aspects of Binding and Mending

Anyone who has seen a truck of old books going to the bindery and then seen them come back in their new beauty will need no further convincing as to the importance of systematic book binding and repair. Readers are repelled by the shabby, loose-jointed, dirty books on the shelves of a library which neglects rebinding and repair. And good rebinding makes a book last longer than does its original binding. A library which would rate well maintains high standards for the physical condition of its stock of materials. A normal program calls for mending each year about 2 per cent and rebinding about 0.5 per cent of the number of books circulated each year. A skilled book mender adequately equipped can repair about 5,000 volumes a year, but "repair" does not mean working on books that need rebinding. Rebinding cost will average \$1.50 at 1961 prices, and can be expected to total about 2 per cent of the library's current operating expenditures. Repair costs are largely absorbed into regular salaries. The subject of book care is here reviewed first as to some policy and organizational questions, and then as to some technical considerations.¹⁻⁴

The responsibility for keeping materials in good condition applies to all libraries; in addition the large libraries tend to have expensive, rare and sometimes unique materials which have to be preserved for generations. We do not go into recent studies on permanence of paper; such paper stock has recently become available at little extra cost but the problem is to prevail on trade publishers to use it at least on books of lasting value.

Five major objectives which underlie policies are:

Securing general efficiency and economy in care of library materials.

Rebinding according to A. L. A.-L. B. I. specifications, despite contrary pressures.

Developing less expensive specifications for materials not requiring such long life.

Seeing that books are shipped to the bindery every month for large libraries,

and quarterly for small libraries, and that they are returned within a month.

Keeping repair work in the library flowing promptly and economically.

POLICY AND ORGANIZATIONAL QUESTIONS

That the policy of operating one's own bindery even in large libraries has proved a failure seems evident from Kingery's 1952 statement that only ten then survived,⁵ and Shaw's 1956 report that New York and Brooklyn Public Libraries were paying commercial binderies about \$1.25 per volume for rebinding, while Queens Borough Public Library rebound 35,000 volumes in its own bindery at an average cost of \$2.23.⁶ A second policy question is how to choose the commercial binder, since library binding is a highly technical matter and requires costly special equipment and accumulated skill justified only by a large volume of work.

How to Choose a Binder

About two-thirds of the eighty commercial binderies of the country belong to the Library Binding Institute,⁷ which worked with A. L. A. committees to prepare the current exacting specifications for Class A library binding. The institute certifies binderies which can qualify, provides libraries with a free service of testing rebound books, issues various publications and otherwise promotes good binding. Any L. B. I. member bindery is likely to be reliable and satisfactory, but so also may be some binderies which are not members of the Institute. The three main considerations in choice of a binder are (1) quality of work, regularly checked by a librarian who takes pains to educate himself to know good from poor binding, and by having L. B. I. inspect and report critically on sample volumes; (2) services, which are quickly measured by experience; and (3) the price schedule, which should be re-evaluated every other year or so by comparison with prices and work from other binderies. It is desirable to stay with one good binder as long as possible, if his prices are close to the lowest bid. It takes months for library and bindery staffs to understand each other's problems. Re-establishing relationships and changing paperwork every year is a hardship and will cancel some difference in prices.

A public library should be able to choose its own binder, and it should do so on the basis of the written A. L. A.-L. B. I. specifications.⁸ If the choice must be made by sealed bid, the award of the contract should not be based on price alone; service and quality of actual work are important too. Specifications should stipulate the use of Class A library binding and especially the use of oversewing by machine, which produces a chain of stitches, all in an even line and close to the back edges of the book. The individual sheafs of pages when so sewed to each other are flexible and easy

to open, but every page is held securely in place. It is also essential that ease of opening be assured by only scraping and sanding off the old glue on the backs instead of trimming them by a cutter; even a thirty-second of an inch taken off the inner margin makes the book harder to hold open for reading. If some modification is desired, such as the "economy binding" for periodicals, it should be described in reasonable detail. Few laymen know what constitutes good library rebinding; some firms offer low prices but are unable to meet A. L. A. specifications and should not be allowed to compete.⁹ Ask for samples of the binder's work, to see just how carefully it is done.

Services from a good binder include (a) the use of picture covers, or a cover design, and a wide range of colors; and (b) prompt work, i.e., most books returned to the library in no more than a month, and pick-up and delivery service. Prices of magazine binding and book rebinding are usually quoted by the height of the book and will double from below eight inches to above twelve. Not all good binders are equally efficient and prices vary considerably, and not always directly with the quality of work and adequacy of services. A library spending about \$5,000 a year can expect a discount of 15 to 20 per cent below the published price scale, especially if the binder has a contract for all of the library's work.

Financial and Organizational Aspects

A third policy question concerns the allotment of the binding funds to library agencies.¹⁰ In small libraries the binding fund needs only to be apportioned among juvenile rebinding, adult rebinding and periodical binding. Hardly any library, even a large one, has sufficient binding budget to allow each agency to send in every book in need of rebinding. Quotas must be assigned by departments and branches, perhaps also by main types of books. Quotas by number of books is preferable to quotas by dollars, involving less figuring and paperwork. Quotas should be reviewed annually, based on pertinent factors such as book stock and circulation. In general it is better to be arbitrary about quotas than to consume valuable time with elaborate records.

More important is the policy question as to where and how decisions are to be made to rebind, repair or discard a book. Many, perhaps most, books can be repaired within the library and need not be rebound; others need to be rebound or replaced instead of spending half an hour on repairs which will be shortlived. Such decisions should be made by an intelligent, interested person designated to be in charge of binding and repair; he can then learn to know best what can be done in each case. For example, can a given book with narrow inner margins or brittle paper be profitably rebound? This person need not be and seldom is a professional librarian. But some books are not worth rebinding because a later edition is available, or a

book's condition is so bad that it is cheaper to replace it, or it's outdated and is no longer desirable and should be discarded. Such decisions involve the judgment of a professional librarian, who should scan the books selected for rebinding before they are sent out. Large libraries often maintain reserve collections of gift or duplicate withdrawn popular books in good condition, to replace active copies that need rebinding. The old accession and book numbers can be transferred to the new copies without recataloging.

A final policy question concerns the place of binding and repair in the organization. Chapter 28 noted that preparation of books and magazines for binding is one of the technical processes and in some libraries is combined and located with order work and cataloging in a technical services department; in smaller libraries the head cataloger can simply be responsible for supervision of the person who actually handles binding and repair. This is rather natural, for it combines the physical preparation of new books for circulation and use with the rebinding and repair of those already in use. The person responsible for preparing books for binding and for doing major repairs should be able to maintain good quality with high production levels, and be provided with adequate work stations, supplies and such equipment as a bindery press, paper cutter, etc. One of his chief problems is to work out and keep improving the flow of work, not only to and from the outside bindery, but within the department, so that books will not stand idle for days and weeks awaiting action.

The simple mending should be done at the individual agency. It costs money for the time and paperwork to send to one central place every book needing pencil marks erased or a torn page repaired. This simple type of repair to be done in the agencies should be defined and limited, the methods and materials prescribed, and those who do the work should come together for instruction. An unskilled library staff member can do as bad a job of rebacking or recasing as any home amateur, and his time and the materials may cost high in view of the poor results often achieved.

TECHNICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In Binding and Rebinding

Binding and rebinding are not simple matters today. There are alternatives to binding, principally microfilm and other microforms, especially for bound newspapers with their great bulk, their rapid decay of paper stock and their susceptibility to mutilation. Many magazines are also available now in microfilm or microprint, but most readers find that regular printed issues are quicker to use. Steady deterioration of publishers' binding of new books, especially of juveniles, has resulted in the rise of the prebound book

business. Commercial firms and library binders today buy new books in publishers' sheets and put them in durable library binding and usually with an attractive picture cover. Also recently publishers have found library sales great enough to justify special binding. Such prebinding may more than double the circulation of a book compared with the publisher's original binding. A 1959 estimate reported about 20 per cent of all children's books were then being prebound.¹¹ Prebinding is done for as large a number of copies as possible at one time so that the unit price is considerably less than to have one copy of the same book rebound later.

Still, most magazines and books in a public library will need to be bound or rebound by a commercial binder. Class A library binding specifications, issued in 1934 and since revised, constituted a long step forward.⁸ But for the typical public library they place undue emphasis on the life of the re-binding and give inadequate attention to its attractiveness and to the probable per-circulation cost of the book in question. A high percentage of useful life remains in the rebinding of books whose pages are worn out or intellectually outdated. Evidently public libraries need also a Class B binding half as durable as Class A, twice as attractive and half as expensive. For example, it is estimated that a current new book will need rebinding after about 20 circulations, and that Class A rebinding will allow for another 80 to 100 circulations.¹² But there will always be many books not worth keeping or using after a total of 50 or 60 circulations, and so half the useful life and cost of a Class A rebinding will be wasted.

Most binderies now offer an economy or storage binding less durable and expensive than Class A and less attractive, but useful for the many periodicals and Less Used Materials (specifications for these are nicknamed LUMSPECS) which need to be available for occasional reference use and not to be kept indefinitely. In 1961, the A. L. A. identified binding needs for five types of material and is preparing tests and specifications for them.¹³

Forms and records for routing books and magazines to and from the bindery should be minimized. The main objective is a steady flow in both directions, and preventing backups before the material is sent out and after it comes back. The individual agency charges the book to bindery, and keeps the book card in its file. Periodical issues to be bound should be collected and checked for completeness at the periodical check-in unit, which would be the first to know of the completion of a volume and the number of volumes to be bound together.¹⁴ Time-saving printed binding instruction slips in duplicate are now commonly used, and are often available from a commercial binder. Indicated items are checked off, and the exact lettering to appear on the spine is shown.¹⁵ Further preparation details can be found in *Library Binding Manual*.¹

Upon return of books from the bindery, the instruction slip and the invoice should be checked against the volume. Some books in every shipment should be checked for quality of binding.¹⁶ Collation of individual books

or magazine volumes page by page, before or after binding and by either the library or the bindery, is unnecessary if their pages are riffled through under close scrutiny. After the volumes are property-marked, plated, pocketed and date slips pasted in (one reason why binding flow is often combined with new-book preparation), they are returned to their places on the shelves.

In Repair and Related Work

The number of books mended and repaired in a typical public library is at least four or five times the number rebound, and this work absorbs proportionately more staff time than preparing books for the bindery and handling their return. There is a wide range of possible repairs and related work, from relatively simple jobs such as tipping in loose plates or photo prints of missing pages, to rebacking a book or even recasing it when the sewing is still sound but the hinge has torn loose, making slip cases, reinforcing magazine covers, mounting pictures, etc. Experience is a great teacher, but there are several good sources of instruction on book repair for the average library.¹⁷ New repairers should observe the work of a commercial bindery so as to understand the construction of a book, and visit for a few days in the repair section of a larger library to study its methods. Several neighboring libraries could arrange an annual workshop on this subject. Better materials and new methods should be tried; time is saved by using a mending instruction slip in each book telling the worker just what is to be done. One objective is to regulate the flow of books coming for repair in order always to have enough on hand but not more than enough for two or three weeks. Water-soaked books should be stood on end in a warm room, with the covers spread so the pages can dry.¹⁸ Books from homes where there has been contagious disease need not be destroyed or fumigated. There is no evidence that books transmit disease germs, but it is enough if such books are put out in the sun, with their pages spread, for a few hours.

Like any other useful function, book binding and repair work is important, interesting and susceptible to great development and improvement.¹⁹

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CHAPTER 30

Promoting Public Knowledge of Materials and Their Uses

Those who evaluate, select and work with the insides of books and other materials, who comprehend the potential community values of each item and have the book-based vision and enthusiasm to wish every citizen to know about as many good books as possible are the ones to plan and prepare publicity about books. True, the publicity when ready should be turned over to the publicity officer to be put through the library's routine patterns of handling news stories, exhibits, booklists and other devices, such as editing and designing for printing. There is also the instruction of classes and groups in the use of books and libraries. The present chapter is a logical sequel to the three which precede it, and is supplemented by discussion on general publicity in Chapter 9. Above all the other library publicity, that for the books and other library materials needs to be continuous, varied, persistent and impelled by a conviction that materials are of great usefulness and that citizens should know it.¹ The Pratt Institute Library School produced a valuable schematic diagram to suggest how to relate book evaluation to a more realistic promotion of the different objectives and services of the library.²

The Assistant as Salesman

A reminder seems essential: the library assistant who can make agreeable constructive contacts with patrons is in a strategic position to encourage book use and borrowing. He plays somewhat the part of the salesman in the bookstore. Some of the same techniques are appropriate, including realization that many readers wish to be left alone to choose by themselves.³ Few resent the pleasant, matter-of-fact question which more assistants should ask of more patrons: "Is there anything I can help you find?" The salesmanship comes when there is an obvious opportunity,

especially if the reader's questions lead up to it, to suggest a book which the assistant knows might ring the bell. This applies also to reference books and library tools; often the inquirer is unaware of them.

Lists of New Books

The weekly list of the library's new books published in the local paper is perhaps the most profitable and least expensive device to acquaint the whole community with each new title, omitting the less important ones, and giving two- or three-line newsy annotations. Large city papers are reluctant to give this space; few do. But most smaller city papers will. Some, even in very large cities, are willing to run short special lists in news-story form, e.g., on the business or sports pages, or with a news heading tying up a few new books and bulletins with current events. Printed lists of new accessions are costly but many libraries issue mimeographed unannotated monthly lists to be picked up by present borrowers at the service desks. Compared with newspapers the distribution is not very wide but it is selective.

Preparation of new-book lists can be organized to save time. At the time and point where the catalog or shelf-list cards can be for the moment together without delaying their filing for staff and reader use, someone can select and arrange them for listing. Have a clerk type the list after instructions as to what details to omit, i.e., a weekly newspaper list generally gives only a short title and the author's last name. Typed with carbons, one can be posted for readers, another circulated among the staff. If to be annotated, keep the ads, blurbs, reviews or other descriptions attached to the original order card, inserting them in the book when it arrives, to remain with it until books and catalog cards are released. By bracketing and crossing out or adding words, one can prepare effective ready-made annotations in a few minutes, in contrast with undertaking to prepare careful original annotations.* Selected phrases from what the author, publisher, reviewer say about a book may be more accurate and effective. Omit every word that does not describe; do not repeat what is implied by the title. A good typist, after instruction as to editorial marks, can then copy the list and its annotations, but because editing, making decisions and typing go along together, it may be better for whoever prepares the list also to do the final typing. These assignments of work need to be restudied from time to time by those concerned, and new persons tried out on different aspects.

The foregoing is not intended to favor new books over worthy older ones. It is a library function to winnow out the superior books of not-so-recent days and to publicize and emphasize them as most worth reading. This is one of the objectives of selected book lists and displays, and it is regrettable that a steady stream of them is not always pouring forth.

Selected Book Lists

The preparation of selected short lists (10 or 15 to 25 titles) on various subjects calls for judgment and familiarity with the books, to have each title a superior one. Annotations will evaluate and compare books, their purpose, coverage and type of treatment, packing facts and viewpoints into three or four interesting lines. This need is not exactly met by some of the lists issued cooperatively by publishers, whose prime object is to move the stock of new titles. Preparation of a selected list may well extend intermittently over several weeks, with a little work every few days, picking up new items and ideas and talking it over with colleagues. There is need for centralizing cooperative preparation of annotated selected lists for national use, on several hundred subjects of wide constant interest, and for three or four thousand libraries to distribute them. At this late date they are not available, though a few libraries encourage assistants to prepare quality lists, and publish them in worthy format. Booklists go out of date in two or three years, on current events and current problems in three or four months; booklists on most subjects should be distributed promptly, considered short-term affairs, and be revised and updated. Distribution should be mainly outside the library, for example, at garden club meetings and at civic, public affairs, cultural and hobby group meetings. For distribution methods see Chapter 9 and the publicity handbooks by Loizeaux and Wallace. It is better for a library to use a first-class list prepared by another library and buy a few missing titles to back it up than to issue no lists, for it cannot often afford the time and printing cost to get out its own. Such lists are primarily to invite, and need not be loaded with local call numbers. The value to the staff in building up its closer knowledge of important books, by the process of selecting and annotating, cannot be overestimated.

Exhibits

Space does not permit detail as to exhibits; two or three guides to their preparation are listed in Chapter 9. They should be used especially outside the library—to display a selection of books and to explain their usefulness to people who would never think of books. Borrowed store windows, tables set up at local meetings, enclosed glass cases placed where many people pass and where materials will be safe without a caretaker—these are a few possibilities. Book jackets of new titles, if not kept on the books and Plasti-kleered, can enfold some old book used as a dummy, permit the actual new book to be kept in use, and will enliven those exhibits which the public can see and study but cannot handle. Exhibits require adequate explanatory placards, generally done by professional showcard men better and at less time cost than by an assistant laboring over them. Exhibits are most effective when a qualified assistant can be present to discuss books

with people who stop to examine them on a table in a bank, store, hotel or office building lobby and when prefaced by newspaper publicity. Libraries in every large urban neighborhood could take a leaf from the joint endeavor of librarians, publishers, booksellers and leading citizens who arranged a series of well-attended book-show-talk meetings in a dozen cities around Manhattan in 1954; they were eye-openers to the audiences.⁵

For years, libraries have been arranging display racks of their recent attractive books, on subject after subject. Library supply companies sell printed labels and placards to use with them but sometimes it is cheaper of time to make them on the job, using ink brush or lettering kits. Colored illustrations from magazines may form a part of the placard if the exhibit will be within four or five feet of the eyes of passers-by. Chapter 9 noted the effectiveness of window exhibits along the sidewalk, or a lighted, protected free-standing exhibit case close to the sidewalk, if the building is some distance from it, so people passing by may see rather closely the pages of books without going inside the building. Rochester P.L. publicizes its "Books to People" service, whereby a group may request and pick up a pre-selected collection of books, and display and circulate them from their organization meeting, and without borrowers' cards.

Library Visits

The best exhibit of all is the display of the library in operation, a look through the sidewalk windows into the library's busy interior, and tours, with skilled explanation of its materials and services, for groups of visitors, especially adult groups, after special invitation and scheduling. Such tours need careful planning. What are the most important things to be seen in thirty or sixty minutes? A staff conference with a representative of the tour group will help sift out the essentials and arrive at priorities, then arrange a schedule in which the most can be seen and explained in the least time. There is the question also as to what has curiosity or sentimental appeal and what will really be of most service to the visitors. The choice of the guide means much; sometimes the most effective cannot leave his work; in any case the guide should himself have instruction and practice under the critical scrutiny of a few other staff members.

Book Talks

Many organizations at all age levels welcome having a few appropriate books reviewed or commented upon by selected staff members, or by an acceptable volunteer book lover. Reviewing books for high-school-age readers calls for tact, perception, humor and personality, for these young people are critical and exacting. Adult book talks, including book review clubs,⁶

deserve greater development; on history, travel, philosophy, biography and "man, know thyself" they are comparatively infrequent, despite the sustenance such books could give the hearers. Current events, art and music, recent fiction, interpretations of what is wrong with America, foreign affairs and society today—these are the favorite themes and contribute to the substantial type of adult education. Radio and sometimes TV stations will run book talks if well enough presented. Detroit P.L.'s weekly reviews by high school students "Young America Looks at Books" on 11 radio stations, and fortnightly on TV, have been successful indeed.

Vacation Reading

An effective device bringing large-scale reading of books whose high quality can be guided by knowledgeable library workers is the planned program to encourage reading when children and young people are released from the pressure of school schedules. An incentive is often offered in the form of games, clubs, prizes or other recognition. Details of many such programs are given in issues of *Wilson Library Bulletin* and *Top of the News*, and less frequently in state bulletins. To date, programs for grade school pupils predominate and possibilities are largely undeveloped for high school student and adult summer programs.

An Administrative Viewpoint

Publishers, book sellers, authors and librarians, all have a primary mutual concern to encourage reading and information seeking, especially among the adult population. It reflects a helpful and socially constructive viewpoint when librarians forgo their aloof and superior attitude and join with whoever is legitimately working to increase the use of books, as in the various book and library "weeks," local book-and-speaker fairs and meetings or home reading with school credit projects.

INSTRUCTION IN USE OF BOOKS AND LIBRARIES

Few of even the best readers, college professors for example, are sufficiently informed about reference services and tools, how to look up a subject and how to be sure they have found all that might help them. As a result, if they use books and libraries at all they flounder, waste time, overlook items and get only a part of the potential values.

Devices to instruct have been aimed mostly at school pupils, not adults, perhaps in the hope that if young people learn to use books the know-how will carry into adulthood, a doubtful theory. For even grade and high school pupils need to have some fundamental skills taught them several

times as they become more mature and adept. Some national program, more intensive and better planned than any local attempts so far, appears desirable to help libraries capitalize on the value of their books and staffs. This would include specific endeavors to reach grade and high school pupils; college students, with possible special subject matter for students in teachers' colleges and in business colleges; graduate students; faculty members; business and professional men and women and the adult general public. Millions of adult readers need to know how they can use library materials for practical self-help, aided by the printed tools and indexes already available.⁷ Logically all this would seem a normal library objective, which deserves time and effort.

Instruction of School Pupils

Rejoicing when excellent instruction on book use is given in school libraries, the public library still has some responsibility to see that this instruction is actually being given, and well, in each grade in each school, including nonpublic schools.⁸ It does not suffice to say that the library's job ends *here* and the school's job starts *there*. It is the students who matter. The cooperation among local libraries discussed in Chapter 22 could mean that a representative committee such as many cities now have would sit down and plan the coverage of an adequate instruction course from grades 1 to 12, preferably given by and in the school, headed by the school librarian and particularized by each teacher, but shared in by the public library because these pupils will use their public library also, to get the fullest service.

Such a course would cover: (1) Introduction to the library; location and arrangement; nature—a depository of a variety of recorded information; function—to acquire and lend materials for curriculum use and personal pleasure. (2) Printed parts of a book and their use: title page, copyright, preface, table of contents, introduction, body of the book, appendix, index. (3) Care of books: opening new books, avoiding dampness, rough handling, soiling, heat; using proper book marks. (4) Arrangement of materials in the library; books—reference, nonfiction, easy; pamphlets, pictures, clippings, etc.; periodicals—current and filed; films, filmstrips and slides; recordings. (5) Use of the card catalog: definition and arrangement; kinds of cards; information found on the card; uses: to locate a specific item of material, to determine what material the library has by an author or on a subject. (6) Reference books—characteristics and uses of: dictionaries, encyclopedias, atlases, almanacs and yearbooks, biographical dictionaries, periodical indexes, quotation books, miscellaneous reference books in subject fields. (7) Bibliography and note taking. (8) Choosing books for one's own library. Effective placement for each new topic of instruction is a matter of opinion, and the numerous instruction pamphlets and course outlines to date show great variation.⁹

Experience proves that instruction will be more realistic and will stick better if each lesson is tied to and illustrated by assignments which show a student how library materials can actually help find what he needs for his classroom work.

Business and Trade School Students

Library service has always emphasized literature, the other humanities and the social studies. High school libraries are little used on domestic science, shop and commercial subjects. Young people going out to these fields are in general poor readers and are largely unaware of the job help they could get from books and libraries, for instance on how stenographers, secretaries, bookkeepers and other office workers can make themselves more useful to their employees. Scarcely any such courses seem to be mentioned in the literature of business school education.¹⁰ Even their teachers seem oblivious. Both public and school libraries have a challenge to persuade teachers and pupils that what seems a reluctance or disbelief in the utility of books and reading is actually handicapping the teachers in class work and their pupils in their life work.¹¹

College Students

Current trends toward more intensive individual reading in college education¹² inevitably mean that nearby school or public as well as the college libraries must prepare students to use materials more effectively. Princeton sends every alumnus a list of current important books, and this reaches most students also. Present situations run all the way from second-rate colleges where library use is rather perfunctory and noncomprehending and no such library-use instruction is given, to numerous colleges giving only two or three hours for library orientation, up to the few colleges that pour money and the valued time of skilled librarian-teachers into substantial instruction worked out in cooperation with the faculty, to include many example problems that directly serve to make students more proficient in using materials bearing on class subject assignments. Clark¹³ shows how greatly student library use is influenced by teachers who have the library habit. Instructing college students as to how they should use their libraries for college study seems logically the college's responsibility. But the public library and its reference staff pay the penalty if they neglect to see that each local college student is getting this effective instruction.¹⁴

Teachers-College Students

Incongruously, those being taught how to teach children are not as a group among the fortunate Americans who have learned, nor are they

taught in teachers' colleges to know, love and use books and print. They can hardly impart knowledge and enthusiasm for books. Current trends would reduce time spent on narrowly pedagogical courses to provide more time for the humanities. But librarians need to persuade leaders in teacher education to strengthen courses on books and reading, to have every prospective teacher spend eight or ten class hours per year on learning to use books, and a few hours each week on reading them, for personal out-of-school undertakings and cultural background, as well as for class assignments.¹⁴

Graduate Students and Faculty

Advanced students and professors, whose time is so valuable, whose work so important to society, should be efficient library users. But most of them fail to find or even become aware of all the material that they would wish to see and utilize. They lose hours by not knowing the tools of the trade. Space precludes expanding on the possibilities in this area. But the attitude of an advanced student or professor toward library use influences the degree to which he will pass on the idea and facility of book and library use to his co-workers, including the most promising graduate students.

For Out-of-School Readers

Mounting enrollments in adult education classes, the increase in adult nonfiction library circulations and in readers' reference questions suggest the importance of instruction in the use of books and libraries¹⁵ to sizable adult classes or groups, e.g., Junior Chamber of Commerce, P. T. A., League of Women Voters, Business and Professional Women, to other women's clubs, and to garden, photography, stamp, hiking and similar clubs. The main core of subject coverage would be common to all, but applied to the interests of the group. Here again we must omit details of what should be going on in every city on a large scale when the important element of motivation has been created.

The "clinics" or intensive courses on better (usually meaning faster) reading methods, given in a few large libraries, do not fill the need for showing great numbers of purposeful adults how to draw greater help from their libraries, focused on their personal or group interests.

Help to Individual Readers in the Library

"Reader's advisor" help was discussed in Chapter 17. It is possible that libraries will redevelop more of the personal reader-adviser type of service, giving it a more practical informational-counseling slant.¹⁷ This is found already effective in a few situations where a school librarian serves also as

student counselor.¹⁸ Perhaps trained counselors from school and other local backgrounds will be brought in on library-paid after-school or part-time schedules, made acquainted with library materials and routines, to help on this important work.

In short, through all the age levels and groups of a community, the library has a major task, increasing daily because of the competition from other leisure activities, to show individuals the power and the utility of books and reading.

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PART 5.

Administrative Aspects of the Business Office and of Building Problems

CHAPTER 31

Administration of the Office and of Statistical Records

The great growth of American society in size, in complexity and in specialization has induced a tremendous growth in the creation, handling, analysis and retention of paper records. This is called the age of paperwork. While in 1904 there were more than ten production workers for every office worker in American industry, by 1954 the ratio had dropped to less than four to one.¹ Despite the spate of office machines and perhaps encouraged by it, the trend is still strong in this direction. Public libraries and other municipal agencies are not immune to this pressure for increased clerical activities; office administration in public libraries needs study and improvement, both in small and large libraries. The subject is discussed here under three main headings—general considerations of the library office, selected specific clerical functions and statistical records. Chapter 32 takes up financial records and activities, including purchasing and the distribution of supplies.

THE LIBRARY OFFICE

The larger the library the surer it is to have a central office to perform for most of the system the various clerical activities described below. In small libraries these are handled by one person. In libraries large enough (about 20,000 population) to justify at least a part-time secretary for the librarian, she will perform many of these library office functions. In simpler days and today with simpler ways, the librarian's secretary should be able to manage his dictation, the statistical records, financial accounts and typing of book orders, if she has above-average accuracy, speed and intelligence.

The Office Head and Staff

When a library has a staff of 20 to 25 (i.e., for 40,000 to 50,000 population), the librarian will be in great need of a full-time secretary. This same

4 or 5 per cent ratio of office staff to total staff seems applicable in large libraries also, but large libraries are prone not to provide sufficient clerical help to department heads for their correspondence and records. Many of the functions of the library office are outgrowths of the chief librarian's activities; it is therefore natural that the library office is directly responsible to him. But in the largest libraries, the extensive development and specialization of these clerical activities will require his delegating their supervision to an office manager who may report to the assistant librarian.

When the volume of office work justifies more than one person, the question arises whether it is better to centralize such services in one office or to decentralize them to departments and branches. While circumstances in some cases, such as distance of an agency from the library office, may justify decentralization, clerical services should be centralized as far as possible, at least up to the point at which a department or branch has so much clerical work as to require its own full-time clerical assistant. Centralization makes possible the development of specialized functions, and justifies the use of certain machines. Furthermore a group of say 5 persons on the staff of the library office (which would presuppose a total staff of at least 100, and a population served of about 200,000) can perform more as a team than the total of each working apart from the others. Office management has become a specialized occupation; with the right person in charge it can promote the whole library program, and department or branch heads will have little cause to desire decentralizing their part of the work. In a busy library the office clerical staff find real enjoyment and satisfaction in their work and are recognized by the staff and the community as a great factor in good service.²

It is not easy to get the right person as head of the office staff, trained and experienced in office management, with a flair for management detail and efficiency, and dedicated to helping the rest of the library achieve its goals. Because business firms can pay better salaries the library often has to find someone on the nonprofessional staff who comes closer than anyone else to these standards, and to train him for this job, which has real potential for contribution, status and recognition. This adds another important position to the career opportunities open to nonprofessional employees. In general, all the office staff should be good typists (at least 40 to 45 words per minute) so they can pinch-hit for each other. This can be tested in considering applicants. The office head, however, should be selected by actual observation of his work performance, administrative and instructional ability, personality and general intelligence.

A commercial course in high school or in a business college is important, but systematic in-service training for the office staff is also needed. This training should embrace the content, the methods of work, the attitudes of the office staff toward the rest of the library and a constant search for bet-

ter ways of doing things. Each should know enough about the work done by every one of his colleagues to be able to substitute for him in an emergency and to understand the interrelationships of each job with the others. A procedures manual is highly useful for orientation and training.³ Many office problems and their solutions are similar to those in other institutions and in business, and the office manager can get much continuing on-the-job training outside the library, at meetings of such organizations as the National Office Management Association, or clerical workshops arranged by the local chamber of commerce, and from books⁴ and journals on this subject.⁵

Working Quarters

Efficiency and productivity are fostered by good physical quarters. Placement near the librarian's office will save considerable time and is so found in most recent buildings. Space is needed for a desk for each person, for files, adding machine, duplicator, typewriters, shelves and other equipment—100 square feet per person if possible. Good lighting, adequate heat, air-conditioning and some measure of sound control are important, as discussed in Chapter 11. Arrangement of the room can save much time. If one person is to serve as receptionist, for example, her desk should be convenient to callers. Usually it is best to space desks a foot or two apart but close enough to share a phone, and with all equipment nearby which will or can be used in common. L-shaped desk units will make space count better, and three-quarter height movable partitions will reduce distraction.

Usual equipment for the library office includes a typewriter for each person, if possible one electric typewriter and one wide-carriage machine, one or more outside telephones, plus inside phones or other intercommunication device, and for cities of over 20,000 population a mimeograph or other duplicator. Larger libraries will need in addition a tape calculating machine or a calculating machine and a tape adding machine, a paper folder, a quick photo copier able to reproduce both loose papers and replacement pages in bound books, metal file cases with "Flexifile" hanging folders, and one or more metal movable typewriter tables.

The general objective of the library office is to draw together and handle at one point the large volume of paperwork which can be shifted without much time loss, from departments and branches and from the professional librarians. But not all clerical work, by any means, can be so centralized. The considerable typing in the catalog department, for example, cannot economically be shifted, because it would involve moving the books, would break up the streamlined work flow which can be developed there and add to costs. Office work in libraries needs searching analysis of present practice and a streamlined revision by specialists in paperwork job organization and

layout. Many ingenious devices can be developed.⁶ This kind of situation and the need to challenge every process were discussed in Chapter 11, and more effective training in other aspects of the work in Chapter 16.

Peak Loads

Although proper scheduling is a vital factor in good work flow there are bound to be times of peak work loads. The office director can help meet these by dropping or postponing low-priority activities in favor of high-priority ones, by doing jobs in the order of their importance and of their due dates, by notifying the librarian in advance that a given job will not be done in time, and by getting permission to borrow help from other departments, or to use commercial services, e.g., for mimeographing.⁷ Similarly in slack times the office staff can complete low-priority jobs previously postponed or send a typist to help another department catch up. Few libraries pay attention to the level of production or to the quality of paperwork, but usually both can be raised, perhaps by using a machine, by organizing and dividing the work better, by simplifying it or by working more concentratedly but not necessarily harder.

Four Qualities

Four main qualities should characterize the work of the librarian's secretary and the office staff in good situations:

1. Attention to see that things are not forgotten or delayed, by remembering about jobs expected or under way, and their deadlines; serving as the library's and the librarian's memory. There are nearly infallible devices for reminding oneself and others of deadlines and due dates.

2. Promptness. Jobs done quickly require no system to remember what is to be done, and the instructions so freshly received are more easily followed. Prompt performance is the chief measure of the success of centralized clerical services.

3. Accuracy, depending on the nature of the work and on the needs of the person for whom it is being done, such as payrolls, which will need to be more accurate than the periodic count of positions for analysis of turnover. Librarians tend to emphasize accuracy, and the office staff should be given a clear idea as to what level of accuracy is desired in each main job assignment.

4. Attitude of the office staff toward the rest of the library. Because they work so closely with the librarian, many office staff members find it easy to be unreasonable or arbitrary in considering requests from other library agencies. The office staff will be doing its job well only when it serves the rest of the library well, and branch librarians and department heads should frequently be asked if they are well served by the library office. The librarian and department heads should occasionally discuss the possibilities of having work done at one place or at another, to understand the pros and cons.

SPECIFIC CLERICAL FUNCTIONS

Physical layout of the building, organization of the particular library, abilities of the office and related staffs, and other factors vary so greatly that no list of clerical office activities will fit more than a few situations. Fiscal procedures, purchasing and supplies are discussed in Chapter 32, but in small and medium-sized libraries these are usually handled by the librarian's secretary or the office staff. The secretary's work has been outlined in part in Chapter 5.

Usually someone in the library office serves as receptionist to business callers, including job applicants, salesmen, patrons with complaints, etc. She must know the library well enough to screen the callers who wish to see department heads and the librarian, as noted in Chapter 5, and to handle each caller tactfully so that his errand will be pleasantly resultful.

Typing is the major office work, such as minutes of trustees' and other meetings, purchase orders, correspondence, book orders and form requests for free material, payroll, news releases, interlibrary loan requests, lists of books and periodicals, monthly and annual reports and statistical tables. Quality and quantity of typing may be raised in several ways.⁸ A dictating machine used by the librarian and department heads will save the secretary's time and avoids having a stenographer, whose salary would be 15 to 20 per cent higher. Prepared forms can be used for correspondence or in acknowledging gifts. Methods of reproduction other than manual typing, such as mimeographed address labels or metal address plates, are desirable for an extensive frequently used list of persons. An office photo copier will produce one more copy of a document more economically than to retype it, and prints can be made here for readers from books and magazines.

Duplicating Machine

Duplicating materials may be the second most frequent time consumer, for reports to the trustees, booklists, forms, bookmarks, staff notices, etc. Six or so carbon copies can be typed on a manual typewriter, ten or more on an electric typewriter. A spirit duplicator costs less than \$100 and will quickly make up to 30 or 40 copies but with a tendency to fade in time. Mimeograph machines range in price from about \$100 to \$750, and the stencil will produce several thousand copies, in color and with illustrations. Only larger libraries will want a multilith, which can do many types of work, but commercial letter-shop service is usually available with reasonable rates. The silk-screen process is useful for posters, and small sign-making machines can be bought for as little as \$100. One or more of the office staff should be skilled in the use of each device. It is a good idea to keep in a

scrapbook a sample of each item reproduced, noting quantity distributed and date, for this information is often referred to and takes only a minute or two to record.

Such materials may be distributed according to a code, so many to each agency, and an information copy of public service literature to board members. Any mailing or distribution list needs to be reviewed occasionally after asking recipients whether they wish to continue receiving the item. The reserve copies of library publications need similar review, and someone can anticipate junking by distributing what is left. One or two file copies of each should be kept permanently.

Office Records and Forms

The four- or five-drawer metal file cabinet is always present, probably with more papers than will ever be needed. Costs for filing, keeping and finding an item increase as the size of the total file expands. One idea is to hold new papers for six months; by then, most of them can be discarded. In another weeding, every five years, most can safely be thrown away, placing in storage units the papers which should still be kept but are not likely to be needed for current reference. A rough rule of thumb is to have no more than one file drawer of current office papers for each 20,000 people served. This file should be kept in one alphabet. Only office personnel should file and take out papers, and all papers to go into or come out of the file should be handled by the same person if possible, to minimize errors and to have a record of any papers borrowed.

Archivists and business firms are fairly well agreed on a few principles for discarding records. A records retirement schedule should be prepared for approval by the board, listing main classes of records, specifying length of time to be kept and manner of disposition. Some financial records, such as petty cash receipts, can be destroyed as soon as the financial audit has been completed for that year. Bids for library contracts should be kept for several years, and board meeting minutes and annual financial and departmental reports indefinitely. Microfilming the records to be kept will reduce the needed space and increase their life. Some of the cameras used for photographic charging will serve this purpose. Many states now regulate the disposition of all governmental papers.

The library office is normally the agency responsible for creating and distributing all needed forms, and generally too little attention and control are exercised. Some forms could be combined, some have been outmoded but not replaced, some need review and simplifying, and possibly new ones are required. Every form should have a descriptive title and carry the name of the library, a serial number, and the date it was prepared or last revised. An up-to-date sample book or catalog of current forms in use is useful and usually an eye-opener. A forms requisition is necessary in larger libraries so

that those concerned can study the details and design of any new form before printing, and each time it is revised. Directions for using a form should be built into it. The first question to ask of each existing form is whether it is really necessary at all. There is much literature on forms and forms control in general and in business, but little in libraries.

The library office usually handles incoming and outgoing first-class mail and that involving acquaintance with postal regulations. A library which uses direct mail advertising (in towns of over 25,000 population) may need a third-class mailing permit. Postage meters are helpful in larger libraries. If the library has a telephone switchboard, it is often in or under the control of the library office. So the variety of work in the typical library office is always interesting.

STATISTICAL RECORDS

The library office is the logical unit usually involved in collecting, preparing and distributing statistical reports, in tabulating the data, and in filing and storing the papers. The tendency is for statistical records to increase in number and complexity. Most libraries of any size keep more than the recommended list of eighteen items in Chapter 8. Certain principles need to be considered:

1. Keep and gather only data which will be used and needed. Too often someone starts a new record to meet a real need, but it continues to be kept long after the need has been filled. Often the data are recorded in more detail than anyone will need, and many items can be eliminated. Most libraries no longer record circulation data by each Dewey decimal class, but keep only totals by the three main categories, juvenile, adult fiction and adult nonfiction.

2. Review the surviving statistics periodically to combine or keep at a more logical point or in some other form, or to simplify. For example, purely internal records showing book expenditures by agency need only be kept in terms of whole dollars instead of dollars and cents; the results will be very much the same. Chapter 32 shows how financial records, especially those required by outside authorities, can be kept accurately but perhaps less completely. Internal administrative records can often be simplified and kept only for short sample periods rather than continuously. Thus, circulation records by almost any system can be analyzed for one day a month and averaged for the year, to produce a fair estimate of the three main book divisions; it will be close to what a year-long total count would show. Often the data from many agencies, or over a certain time period, can be tabulated and the original reports then destroyed.

3. Check to see that the data gathered are being analyzed, interpreted and reported. In many libraries more figures are gathered than anyone knows what to do with; if three or four understanding persons cannot see any meaning in the data, they should be halted. More and more public libraries for example are ceasing to report the number of registered borrowers; variations in practice make

comparison difficult and current practice tends to allow for multiple and indefinite registration. Figures worth analyzing and interpreting are worth reporting to the board, to the staff and to the public. When possible, they should be related to the comparable figures of other libraries, as suggested in Chapter 8.

New and more significant statistics and measurements than we now have will doubtless be developed. Experimentation is greatly to be desired, in the hope that there will be general agreement that the new data will be worth their cost.

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CHAPTER 32

Business Procedures and Records

The major aspects of public library finances and budgets were discussed in Chapter 7. Here we consider the administration of the library's routine business procedures and its fiscal records. In small libraries these will all be handled by the librarian himself, or perhaps by a trustee as unpaid treasurer; in larger libraries by the librarian and his secretary or the business office assistant; and in the largest libraries by a financial officer.

BUSINESS PROCEDURES

Purchasing

Much will depend on the library's inclusion in local government and its processes. Frequently, for example, the procedure for purchasing supplies and equipment will be specified and perhaps even handled by the city. In the extreme case, the local government may provide some materials or services to the library on requisition and not involve the library in any dealings directly with the vendor. Most libraries are independent of the city in their purchasing arrangements, though even then there may be state rulings to be observed. Purchasing of books was discussed in Chapter 28, and of binding services in Chapter 29. That leaves three main classes of purchases needed by public libraries—equipment, other services (such as building repairs), and supplies.

The spirit of all legal requirements for purchasing by public bodies is that competitive sealed bids be sought from qualified vendors, to secure the best possible price for a given quality. This generally means written specifications and sealed bids for purchases above a certain dollar value, and usually works well. Thus sealed bids for the same model car of a given make, or for newest models of two or three equally good typewriters, may vary by 20 per cent from highest to lowest. If the public library can control the specifications issued for a given purchase it can greatly benefit by this

system. Even when the library handles its own purchases, it can usually get from vendors the same competitive low prices on fuel, light bulbs, typewriters, etc., offered to the city or school board. Since inevitably there are differences between bidders which are not subject to measurement in dollar terms, such as the promptness of service, it is well to award contracts not to the lowest bidder but to the best and lowest.

Such elaborate procedures are not called for on purchases of below \$1,000 or so. The library board may permit direct purchasing by the librarian for any single expenditure of no more than say \$100, and require that expenditures of more than that be submitted for advance approval, often with quotations from more than one vendor. By the same token it is wise to decentralize to the individual branch or department the authority to purchase any item costing no more than say \$5 and not available by requisition, with a report of these to be made to the business office.

For libraries of 75,000 population and up, some brief record of all purchases should be kept, with date, quantity, prices, and notes as to staff evaluations of the product and service and the trade names of what have been found to be the most satisfactory brands. Changes should not be made by the business office in catalog cards, letter paper, pencils, and other items, without consulting the persons who use them. A list of brands preferred by the staff will also save the office staff from most of the time-consuming visits of manufacturer's representatives.

Distribution of Supplies

Purchasing is tied to the distribution of supplies to the individual library agencies and staff members, and the two functions are usually handled by the same persons. Supplies should be kept under lock and key, and distributed by some one person at stated times, as on the morning of a given day each week. A list of all the supplies currently available should be maintained, and in larger libraries it should be mimeographed for distribution to all agencies for use as a requisition list. In such cases the head of each branch or department should sign the requisition, and it is then the authorization for disbursement of the supplies from the stockroom. There is no reason why an item of current and continued usefulness in a public library should be unavailable in the stock room; a reserve supply should be set up of each such item, sufficient to meet all requests likely to be received in the time necessary for reordering.

Purchasing a reasonably large quantity of an item secures better discounts and avoids repeat orders which sometimes cost \$2 to \$5 for paperwork.¹ But too large a supply of an item may result in spoilage. An agency's request for any approved item not currently available should result in placing an order for it, notifying the agency of this action, and marking the purchase

order with instructions upon receipt to forward the needed quantity to that agency. Once a year the stockroom shelves need review to clear out items no longer used or useful.

Insurance

Arrangements for insurance will also depend on the closeness of fiscal relationships to the city, county or other local government. But though the matter may be completely handled by another body, even to payment of the premium, the librarian should make himself acquainted with the insurance arrangements, read the policies themselves, especially the fine print, and seek all necessary and desirable provisions. Typically a public library will have insurance on its buildings and contents against damage by fire or certain other natural hazards (usually designated as "extended coverage"). The premium paid for this insurance will be greatly reduced if co-insurance is used. This means simply that the library agrees to maintain insurance protection for 80 or 90 per cent of the full value of the property, and the company agrees to charge a lower premium. To maintain co-insurance, it is well to call for an engineering survey of the library buildings every five years or so; this may result in some rise in total valuation but it will maintain the co-insurance clause and will serve to detect potential fire hazards.

Building contents may be included in the general fire insurance policies. But for about the same premium cost as for fire and extended coverage, a "valuable papers" policy will protect books, other library materials and the catalogs against many more risks, such as loss in mailing or damage from vandalism or burst water pipes. A card record of major equipment should be maintained in larger libraries, partly for insurance valuation purposes and partly as a record of identification, repairs, serviceability, etc. Many possible kinds of insurance are often *not* needed. Insurance should be used to cover a possible loss which would be too large to be handled from current revenues. Thus on automobile liability policies, use the maximum deductible amount which the library could afford to pay in case of damage. A liability policy for accidents to readers and staff is always desirable and is sometimes required, as in the case of an elevator.

Insurance is a matter complicated enough to require study. Ask a good agent to explain what coverage is needed and why, and what items can be omitted. A three-year policy costs less per year than a one-year policy, a five-year policy less yet. Book coverage can be based on the average cost of books of different kinds, such as adult, juvenile, fiction, nonfiction and reference,² but for most public libraries this degree of detail is not necessary. In any case, review the library's insurance policies every few years to see what changes may be indicated. Self-insurance is not recommended.³

Other Business Procedures

The handling of gifts of money and of the resulting investments is usually done under the direction of the board of trustees, often calling on the community's best investment authority for free advice. But the librarian should know what is being done and should review it critically. Accounting systems to determine the cost of a given service or activity have an extensive literature as related to industry, business and office work, and a few studies have been made in libraries, as noted in Chapter 8. The difficulty of getting measurable units of operation and the consequent non-comparability of cost data in different libraries have been pointed out. A more practical approach is to keep a few simple records for year-to-year comparisons, and involving only direct costs, i.e., labor and supplies, without attempting to allocate indirect or overhead costs, as suggested in Chapters 24 and 28. Any attempt at cost accounting will doubtless produce figures higher than were expected and should lead the librarian to re-evaluate the activity in question.

FINANCIAL RECORDS

Financial records, universally required by law to show how public funds are spent, are essential to assign and control expenditures. The temptation should be resisted to keep accounts in greater detail than is clearly required for either of these purposes. If the city or county government insists on maintaining full financial records of the library, and the library can secure adequate and prompt reports when it calls for them, there is no need for a duplicate set of records in the library. Most libraries of any size and all those whose finances are independent of local government have to keep their own records. Often the local or state government requires that financial records be kept in specified form, and the library must conform. Often too the library has such difficulty in getting data from account books at the city offices that it has to keep duplicate accounts itself. Sometimes official approval can be secured to modify a requirement that involves excessive paperwork or delays, or better still the account keeping can be delegated to the library.

In some cities the preparation of voucher checks, drawing on the library's funds in the city treasury, is all done at the library. In such a case the voucher checks can be prepared in triplicate; one copy is the check for payment, the second is sent to the city fiscal office, and the third stays at the library, with original bills and other documents attached. The city accounting office thus knows about every transaction, and can make its annual audit of the library's accounts. The stub or back of the voucher

check has a schedule according to budgetary items such as those listed in Chapter 7, and the total amount of the check is broken down into these parts. All the expenditures are thus ready to be posted in their proper columns, and no figure has been copied more than twice for disbursements or record keeping. The payee detaches the accounting half of the voucher check, and then has a check in the usual form, plus a separate detailed record of the transaction in case he needs it.

Bookkeeping and Revenues

A public library typically does not need double-entry bookkeeping, or more than one book of financial records, i.e., a ledger account by date of all revenues and all expenditures. (It does need also a simple monthly sheet to record each day's overdue fines and other cash receipts, and petty cash expenditures.) Each such entry in the ledger should be given a separate line, with the date, the nature of the transaction, and the amount of money involved. It may carry a serial number for each check or voucher issued. To provide a cross-check at the end of the month, the dollar amount should be entered both in the column headed "Total Revenues" (or "Total Expenditures") and in the column headed with the name of the budget item under which the transaction falls. It is desirable (and sometimes required by law) that all revenues and all expenditures of the library appear in its financial record book, whether or not the revenues are of tax funds, gifts, transfers from other government bodies, cash receipts, or from any other source, and the expenditures are for operating costs, capital outlay, debt retirement, or any other purpose. It may also be desirable to have separate groupings of some of these transactions in the monthly and annual financial reports, or in the daily record of petty cash, but all financial transactions should be shown in one place, and a monthly and annual fiscal report prepared therefrom.

Most revenues of a public library come from one source, the local government tax on property. In many cities the tax distribution is made twice a year, and will vary somewhat from announced or anticipated figures by the amount of unpaid taxes, unpaid taxes of previous years which have been collected, last-minute changes made in assessed valuation, etc. Other sources of library revenues include state aid, payments from other libraries or other units of government for library service, and a miscellaneous grouping of fines for overdue or damaged books, payments for lost books, fees for various services, the sale of old books or waste paper, etc.

Petty Cash

The record of receipts from these miscellaneous sources should be kept in no more detail than necessary, since altogether they seldom account for

as much as 5 per cent of library revenues. A simple mimeographed or printed sheet, with a line for each day and a column for each month, should suffice for record, unless budgetary rules require an estimate of expected revenues of each single, specific kind; even then a one-month-a-year sample may be enough for an estimate. In any case, cash revenues should always be recorded when received and in the actual cash amounts, and not when due or in the amounts expected.

Technical questions arise in the handling of cash receipts. Most librarians consider a cash register at the circulation desk to be a cumbersome nuisance, especially if the receipt slip is handed the reader, who immediately throws it on the floor. It does give reassuring exactness of the amount received each day, and seems very businesslike,⁴ but a cash register is expensive and is not proof against the employee intent upon stealing. Most public libraries use the simple cash drawer, segregate unusual or large receipts, lock up the money every night and deposit it in the bank each week, keeping in the drawer only enough to make change or for petty cash expenditures. The amount of cash received should be recorded in the daily petty cash account; and when the library office deposits it in the bank, the proper entry is made in the ledger as "miscellaneous cash income" or under subordinate headings. Large libraries bond the person who receives and handles the library's cash revenue.

The phrase "petty cash" is sometimes misinterpreted as meaning a source of funds for expenditures. Petty cash is simply money in the form of cash, or small checks to the library, for fines and daily routine matters; and such cash may be used to pay for petty items, whereas other expenditures are usually made by check rather than in silver or paper money. But expenditures from the cash drawer at any agency must all be recorded on the daily cash account sheet and by the business office in the ledger, and be debited to one or another of the various budget accounts, each of which has a total authorized amount for expenditure in a given year. The petty cash device permits making small purchases promptly and with a minimum of paper-work, but it cannot be used to avoid the limits of authorized expenditures.

At least once a month, the total spent from petty cash for any one type of purchase should be recorded as revenue ("miscellaneous cash income"), and again as an expenditure (for example, under "books and magazines," if these were payments for current local newspapers). Unless local auditing rules require it, the original petty cash records need not be kept on file. One modification in making purchases out of petty cash is to establish a petty cash checking account in the name of the librarian or business manager. This allows for purchases limited to say \$5, paid by what amounts to a personal check, with periodic restoration of the bank balance by charging each expenditure account with its total of such checks and by issuing an official library warrant or check for the grand total to the credit of the checking account.

Somewhat akin to, but separate from the petty cash fund, is the idea of a revolving fund, as in the case of a library which rents duplicate copies of currently popular books. Any such fund should be established only by approval of the board of trustees, and usually requires an initial appropriation of money. Once established, however, a revolving fund secures its future revenue from specific sources allocated to it, as in this case the rental fees paid by patrons who choose to borrow the pay copies. The money so received can usually be spent only for a specified purpose, e.g., to purchase more such rental books.

Expenditures

Some cities of over 50,000 population require three steps in the handling of an expenditure, viz., the issuance of a purchase order, the receipt and validation of the bill and the issuance of the check in payment of the bill. Unless the expenditure is being made out of petty cash (or under some similar arrangement), many cities require that there be a record available to the library of every commitment which it is making and for which it is promising to pay. In the case of salaries, the last payroll can be taken as a reasonably close approximation of the next; similarly, bills for light, water and other utilities for one month can be used as a record of such necessary (and committed) expenditures for the next month. But for all those expenditures which are not so regular, e.g., for supplies, equipment, books, repairs, a purchase order should be issued to the vendor or supplier in question and a copy of it kept in the business office of the library as a record of just what was ordered and of the funds committed.

If more purchase orders are issued in a given year than there are funds available or budgeted, it will not be possible to accept delivery or to pay for all the goods ordered. Perhaps in a one-man library, the details of all authorized purchases can be kept in his mind, but delays in shipment, changes in the order and other variables will surely cause trouble sooner or later. In any library with more than one staff member, a system of at least simple home-made typewritten purchase orders should be used. In many cities it is required that the amount of the purchase order be entered in the official record of disbursements as an encumbrance or anticipated expenditure, so as to make certain that a financial report at any time will recognize the existence and amount of these outstanding orders. A simpler method to secure the same result is to keep in a separate file all outstanding purchase orders, and to add the total amount so committed to the monthly report of actual cash transactions.⁵ This has the further advantage of making unnecessary a correction to the ledger entry of the original encumbrance resulting from a change in dollar amount of the actual purchase (as, for example, if the vendor cannot supply the whole quantity ordered, or if there has been a price change).

Clearing Invoices

When supplies or equipment are delivered, they are usually accompanied by an invoice. This should be checked by the appropriate person against what was delivered, to be sure that the quantity and quality of product are as ordered. If satisfied he will sign and date the invoice and give it to the business office assistant. This same procedure should be followed in the case of bills for which there is no invoice, for example, a bill for repair services should be reviewed by the superintendent of buildings and grounds, and approved in writing as correct. In the business office, the receipted invoice or bill should be matched with its appropriate purchase order (and the absence of a matching purchase order may indicate a duplicate bill), and be accumulated for review by the librarian and for submission to the board of trustees. Many libraries are required to secure an affidavit or claim form from each vendor certifying to the accuracy of his bill and witnessing that he has not already been paid. No bills should be presented to the board without critical scrutiny by the librarian if possible, or in large libraries by the business manager. Much can be learned of the daily operation of a library by reviewing current bills, especially as more and more authority is delegated to others. It is desirable, and sometimes it is required, that the librarian initial the bills, indicating his approval that they are correct and should be paid.

Usually the board of trustees or its finance committee approves the bills submitted to it in a group or as a list. But almost always public libraries can pay bills only upon express approval of the governing body, though special provision should be made for early payment of bills which offer a discount for promptness. Occasional review of the bills by the board is healthy for critical evaluation of purchasing practices. Once the bills are approved, the checks are written, usually at the library but sometimes at the city offices, perhaps according to the procedures outlined above under the heading "Financial Records." A stub record or duplicate check is kept by the library, the expenditures are recorded in the financial ledger and the bills marked with the number of the check and filed, desirably by year and then alphabetically by name of vendor.

Salary Payments

Salary payments constitute by far the largest expenditure of any one type, and the bulk of the checks issued by the library. There must be some systematic provision, to the person who prepares the payroll, of such basic information as an accurate roster of those entitled to pay for a given payroll period, the gross amount of such pay and the necessary or requested individual deductions and other changes.

In a library with a staff of even ten persons or more, preparation of the

payroll can be a task of no small magnitude and complexity, and its details will warrant periodic review. There should be a personnel or salary card set up for each member of the staff, with all necessary information as to his previous and present salary and deductions. In larger libraries, it may be useful to have an "adjustment in pay" form to secure in writing the details of any change in salary or in deductions, and its approval or authorization. These "adjustments in pay" forms are then arranged by payroll period, and the changes made on the salary cards at one time just prior to preparing the payroll. The actual payroll can then be made in one typing operation by combining a printed check (with space to show salary changes and deductions), and a payroll form which records all this information alphabetically by staff members' names and allows for totaling gross pay, each kind of deduction and net pay. In effect this is what an electric bookkeeping machine will do automatically. In small libraries it may be reasonable to assume that each staff member is entitled to his salary unless word is received to the contrary. In large libraries it is necessary to have a time sheet or other certification by the employee or his supervisor that he has been at work, especially in the case of part-time employees paid by the hour.

Financial Reports and Audits

To utilize effectively the information contained in the many entries in the library's ledger, the trustees and librarian need a summary of them. Such a monthly financial report is usual, though in small libraries it may be quarterly. It should appear promptly and show a total of all revenues (and by each main source), and a total of all expenditures (and by each main budget expenditure account). In addition, to convey a picture of the library's current cash position, the report should begin with the library's bank balance at the beginning of the previous month, and show the total at the end of the month; this will serve as a cross-check on the totals in the ledger and should also be reconciled with the statement of the library's bank account.

For each budget item of income or outgo the monthly report should show in successive columns, the total allowed for the year, the amount spent up to the end of the previous month, the amount spent during the month just completed, the amount of outstanding purchase orders in each expenditure category, then the percentage of the annual amount already spent or committed to date and finally the balance for the remainder of the year. The last two columns of the report show the extent to which expenditures are proceeding too fast or too slow, in general and in each specific budget account. In the case of any important deviation the librarian should be able to explain the reasons, and should plan to get the outflow under control, especially at the year's end, as discussed in Chapter 7.

Many public libraries publish annual reports which lack any financial

statement, though an annual financial report is almost always required by law of all government bodies, and the form and details are often specified. Such a report or a summary of it should desirably be presented to the board of trustees and made available to the public, including an accounting of any trust funds, gifts, grants or special funds. As noted in Chapter 7, it is essential that the library lay all its financial cards on the table at least in summary form. The annual financial report is usually used as the basis of an audit of the year's financial records, which may be made by a private accounting firm or more often by the city auditor or finance officer. The audit will review the accuracy of the entries in the financial books, the adequacy of the documents backing up those entries, and the library's conformity to applicable laws and regulations. For the librarian's protection, he should insist on an audit and work closely with those who make it.

The best library accounting system is the one which will give only the essential information as to money received and spent in the simplest form possible. It has been the intention of this chapter to set up no bookkeeping or transaction records which can be avoided, and to suggest that where municipal regulations compel elaborate systems which may be essential for other municipal departments spending ten or fifty times as much as the library, some simpler procedure be sought, so that library paperwork and service delays will be minimized. Small libraries should not be disturbed but be glad if their records are simpler than those suggested above, provided they show what is going on financially.

FOOTNOTES AND SPECIAL MATERIAL

1. It cost an average of almost \$10 in 1956 to handle a purchase order from start to finish, in the three New York City public libraries. See Ralph R. Shaw, *A Study of the Advantages and Disadvantages of Consolidation: Prepared for the Board of Trustees of the Brooklyn Public Library, the New York Public Library, and the Queens Borough Public Library*, 77 p. 1957.

2. Dorothea M. Singer. *The Insurance of Libraries: A Manual for Librarians*, 92 p. 1946. A.L.A. Supplemented by A.L.A. Insurance for Libraries Committee. "Evaluation of Library Materials for Insurance Purposes." *A.L.A. Bulletin*, 53: 540-541, June 1959. An A. L. A. committee is studying more thoroughly the various problems of insurance.

3. David S. Disette. "Insurance for Libraries." Unpublished Master's thesis at Western Reserve Library School, 68 p. 1959. A good overview, with special attention to the Cleveland Public Library, which converted from self-insurance in 1958.

4. Arthur Yabroff. "Cash Registers in the Library." *Wilson Library Bulletin*, 35: 711+. May 1961. Detroit P.L. has used them for 10 years, has 22 and is adding more.

5. Another method of accomplishing this is described in Arthur Yabroff. *A Survey of the Business Records and Procedures of the Racine Public Library*, 31 p. 1951. Racine P.L. p. 6.

CHAPTER 33

Administrative Aspects of Building Care and Building Projects

The librarian, or someone assigned to the matter, has to be keenly aware of the custody of the building, an important and expensive property. He has to see that the present building is taken good care of before or while dreaming about a new one. An attractive, modernly equipped, efficient, clean, well-kept building is a great asset in promoting library objectives. Keeping it in good running order, bright and inviting, may be assigned the head of a presumably competent janitorial staff. But unless the librarian pays attention to building condition, and care and cost, he is oblivious to an important aspect of administration. Poor maintenance of building and equipment will adversely affect staff and reader morale. When planning new buildings or alterations or enlargements, the persons concerned and responsible for building custody and maintenance should participate.

CARE AND MAINTENANCE

Any custodian, janitor or part-time charwoman has a part to play which affects everyone in the library. He should be chosen with care, by tryout as well as interviews, and not only from those who apply, or answer an advertisement, or from a list of unemployed but from the four or five most competent persons who can be discovered and encouraged to be candidates. He has to be energetic, in good health, intelligent and trainable, i.e., able and willing to take instructions and learn new ways, have a pleasant disposition and a background of character and responsibility, so he can become a worthy member of the library family and deeply interested in his work, in the services to and satisfaction of readers, and in the library's good reputation. He will often be called on to help keep order; he needs a certain amount of dignity and self-possession which will not arouse reader antagonism. Instead of this, many librarians are under pressure to provide jobs for decrepit persons, jobless, or political cast-offs. The librarian should make

clear to his trustees how important it is that they stand with him to resist this pressure. This is a library service requiring real ability, initiative, energy and devotion. The part-time solution is increasingly common in smaller buildings and branches; a reliable man or woman living close may come in for two or three hours a day. Atlanta and other cities have used a pair or team of men who move from branch to branch, each taking care of his specialty. Some larger libraries contract for special services, such as high-up window cleaning or snow removal, especially if the janitor or building staff are on part time or have all they can do to keep up with regular work.¹

IN PRAISE OF SCHOOL JANITOR

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NEW YORK TIMES:

I sing the song of the school janitor. He looks after the fires and shovels the snow and mows the lawn and sweeps the floors and washes the blackboards and is general repair man for everything on earth.

He may be a molder of character more potent than the principal or the teacher or the Sunday school teacher or the pastor or the football coach. There they come—those children swarming in every day, sometimes unbelievably mischievous, very rarely deliberately mean. They have to be dealt with and it is not only the principal and the teaching staff that have the job.

OTIS MOORE,

Garnerville, N. Y., Feb. 22, 1949.

Courtesy New York Times

Training the Building Staff

The head janitor, building superintendent or the librarian should see that all building workers receive training for their jobs. The new recruit's schedule should be arranged to have him get instruction in any nearby class for municipal or school caretakers, unless he has a supervisor who can give it to him effectively. Methods and materials are always changing and anyone who thinks he knows all the answers is probably wrong. The chief librarian should make clear to each new custodial worker that his work is considered important and worth doing well, that the boss is paying attention to building care, and that the janitor and charwoman have a real part to play in making a better library. Instructional material for building personnel to study is noted at the chapter end; most of it was prepared for school janitors but it applies almost as well in the library. Libraries which take on as few as three or four new building workers each year would profit by having a set of typed instructions as to just what has to be done and how, based on Newman's² and more recent pamphlets³⁻⁶ and including a schedule of duties. All such work has been studied and deserves study, even to the most efficient way to sweep down a stairway or a workroom to get it really cleaned in the least time. Handing this to a janitor is not sufficient; whoever supervises his work should brush up on details and objectives, talk

them over with him, keep posted on his progress and encourage him on new ideas. In libraries kept clean and fresh, it will be found that the building staff is given attention and words of appreciation, sincerely felt.

Management of Building Care

The superintendent, head janitor, or in small libraries the librarian himself has to divide and assign the work to the various workers and follow through, to see that all goes well and that things are done promptly, efficiently, economically. Despite all the money invested in library buildings and in their annual custodial care, we have no figures as to costs per square foot for their care, and little interest in getting them, even samplings. Obviously the type of building which is simple in design, open and with few interior walls and devoid of expensive trim and moldings, means great savings in construction and upkeep compared with buildings of the Carnegie era (Carnegie officials protested, not encouraged, the ornate and pretentious sort of buildings associated with the name). On the other hand, heavier patronage and more glass areas in proportion than heretofore create new building care problems, but give the feeling that library buildings are far more useful than ever and better deserve the investment in good care.

The only data on library building management seemingly available show that in 1960 in the 42 reporting cities of over 300,000 population: (a) the total maintenance staffs numbered 2,184 or about $\frac{1}{4}$ of the total library staffs of 16,336 (see Wheeler and Githens' 1941 formula of 1 employee plus $\frac{1}{4}$ building employee per 20,000 population—W & G, p. 37); (b) maintenance salaries averaged 8.8 per cent of total salary budgets, ranging from 3 per cent to nineteen per cent; (c) that a building manager at substantial salary was employed in 12 of the 16 largest cities, and in 9 of the 16 cities from 300,000 to 680,000 population; and (d) that in at least two cities the assistant librarian supervises building care among other overhead duties.⁷ We lack similar data for smaller libraries, and on hows and whys of organization, costs and methods, which result, for example, in the range just cited, in from 3 to 19 per cent of total salary budgets.

In larger libraries the building superintendent normally deals with contractors, often writing specifications and soliciting sealed bids. He should be present when bids are opened, to advise the board and the librarian on the choice of the best and lowest bid. If sealed bids are not required, he will solicit quotations from two or three firms judged to be competent and reliable, and either decide who is to do the job or recommend a choice to the librarian. He should see that details are studied out in advance, to avoid changes during the work, and watch its progress, consult with the contractor on essential variations and see that the contractor has the cooperation he needs and that his work is well done. He should learn how new equipment is installed and how it is to be serviced and maintained. He and

the chief librarian should review and inspect the finished job in order to recommend its acceptance by the board.

The management of maintenance breaks down into four parts: pinning the actual responsibility for each aspect on some individual; the cleaning and straightening-up operations; the care and operation of heating and other mechanical equipment; and repair and maintenance. More specifically it includes such topics as general safety, health, comfort and convenience of staff and public; condition, appearance and cleanliness of grounds, approaches and exterior; cleanliness and orderliness of the interior, its equipment and furnishings; sanitation throughout, especially floors, washrooms and plumbing; fire safety; effective operation of heating, ventilating, lighting, sewage, water and other services; proper storage of all materials; prevention of damage by water, or by wear and abuse; a minimum of paperwork and records—none in smaller libraries. All this calls for careful definite scheduling, even though unforeseen interruptions often upset any exact schedule. (See suggested schedules in Newman and other booklets cited below.)

Some Reminders on Building Care

Space precludes going into detailed methods of building care; excellent guides are available, noted at the chapter end, though no up-to-date one for libraries. But some situations so often need improvement that a few points may profitably be discussed:

Cleaning machines. In a library of any size a floor-polishing machine costing \$50 to \$200, or a scrubbing-polishing machine, e.g., Kent at \$400, is a money saver. If there are branches it can be moved from branch to branch. Use non-slip wax. For large buildings a floor-washing machine, running to \$1,500, will apply the water and detergent as sparingly as needed, will suck it up dirty, and wipe dry and polish the terrazzo, tile or linoleum floor; few large buildings have wood floors, most old buildings having replaced or covered them. Use high-power vacuum cleaners (American Blower, \$250) for book and shelf dusting.

Heating. Today only very large buildings can justify any heat system or fuel use that involves more than a few minutes a day to operate; janitor costs are far greater than fuel costs. Fuel oil or natural gas are the favorite heat sources today, and many older buildings could cut janitor costs by changing over their old furnaces to oil burners. Coal furnace care, ashes and resulting dirt involve a large share of janitor cost in these older buildings.

Washroom problems. These often involve disagreeable personal situations. A janitor with backbone can help in policing, tactfully drive out undesirables, and save time and embarrassment for the librarian and staff in smaller buildings. One way to reduce abuse of toilets is to require patrons to ask for a key, or install a nickel-in-the-slot door, and post a sign "Washroom Available Only to Readers." The question of moving or completely renovating old unsanitary wash-

rooms in many buildings deserves study and some expense. A no-smoking sign painted high up on the wall will reduce fire hazard. Use metal waste containers. Open electric bulbs and removable fixtures are a temptation to vandalism.

Basements. Chief fire cause in libraries is failure to clean out completely each week the basement accumulation of loose and waste paper, cartons, cleaning rags and discarded materials. A staff member should be made responsible for checking safety matters; janitors have the excuse that decisions are not made to get rid of such items and have them hauled away. Check burnt-out lights, decrepit chairs, splinters on table legs, misplaced ladders, etc. The librarian should accompany the head janitor once a month in at least a short inspection of the whole building.

REPAIRS

Libraries should be permitted to handle their own minor repairs—simple woodwork, like shelving and alterations in counters and furniture, small painting jobs—without the delays and costly paperwork and overhead of going through municipal offices, where politics, visits of inspection and red tape cost the taxpayers dear and accomplish little. Thus in one city the cost estimate to cut through a brick interior wall for quicker access was \$420; whereas actual cost for time and materials for the library carpenter plus a laborer to chisel out the bricks was \$185, without delay and saving all the overhead cost.

If there is a "superintendent" in small and medium-sized libraries up to 100,000 population, he should be a head janitor and wear overalls instead of sitting at a desk, preferably have some mechanical aptitude, and be able to mend and refinish furniture and make simple repairs. Larger libraries will have their own full-time all-round mechanic and in cities of 500,000 and up with numerous branches, a carpenter, plumber, electrician, etc. Some sort of shop space, a bench and tools, are essential in libraries of 20,000 and up. In a large building, or with branches, power equipment is essential. Branches should send in an annual priority list and a monthly memo requesting repairs or alterations, so work can be planned, materials delivered to the job, and time lag prevented. The library should keep ready and in good condition a set of the building blueprints; they show where plumbing, telephone lines, electric outlets and other service points are located, and often save time, mistakes and false starts. Labels painted on the walls should show water cutoffs and other service points and danger spots.

REMODELING

A library building consultant could show how in old, and even fairly recent buildings, staff time could be saved and readers given more con-

venient service, more economically organized, by properly relating functions and service points. Prized main floor space can often be gained by (a) cutting into halls to steal wasted space; (b) getting less important things upstairs or to the basement, and rearranging the main floor, even cutting through walls and (c) if the ceiling is fifteen feet high or more, installing mezzanine or balcony reading and book space, which is the best supplement to main floor space. Many Carnegie-type buildings had central halls open to the roof or even to a dome. A suspended membrane, perhaps 10 feet from the floor, to completely ceil this central space, will save great loss of heat escaping upward, and under the new surface an entirely new efficient lighting system can be installed. Most often this improvement would affect the busy circulation department.

Lighting itself is in great need of overhauling in most buildings. Desk and table lights, including those in carrels, should never be installed and should in most cases be abandoned; as generally placed and directed, they create a heavy glare on the page and a strong reflection in readers' eyes, a frequent and overlooked cause of severe eyestrain. Electric light, like natural light, should be an evenly diffused light coming from overhead. Illuminating engineers' recommendations for foot-candle power have steadily increased; in 1960 they call for 100 foot candles for offices. This may be less important than having 50 or 60 foot candles delivered on reading and work surfaces from ceiling lights, and lights aimed at and reflected from ceilings and upper walls, but widely diffused and as evenly as possible, to reflect minimum glare from work surfaces to the reader. Modern suspended translucent plastic or grid ceilings, with fluorescent lamps installed above them, make the best library lighting, and the cost of such installations in both old and new buildings, if planned economically and simply, need be little if any more than to install a great number of spot fixtures which, though expensively designed, cannot possibly give good diffusion or avoid glare. The present vogue of recessing single lamps in holes in the ceiling fails to give good diffusion and is wasteful of current.

ENLARGEMENT

Almost universally the entire frontage of library buildings over twenty or thirty years old needs to be redesigned and rebuilt in modern style. The forbidding, pretentious "great stone face" until recently typical of libraries has repelled readers and completely thwarted the library's objective of attracting and welcoming new patrons. In contrast many recent buildings reflect current architectural trends toward the use of open glass fronts. This may cause new problems if carried too far, such as too much glare and heat in summer. The open view of the busy, interesting interiors of libraries in

operation is an effective publicity device which expresses the library's desire to welcome and serve everyone. Complete face lifting of old buildings should be sought, even if enlargement does not go with it. It can most easily be managed when the building is also to be enlarged, for one job and overhead cost can cover both aspects of the undertaking.

The library's most valuable and strategic space is at the front of the old building and its plot of ground. Enlargement is not merely a matter of more space; it is the opportunity to get entirely new space at that point where it will do the most good. There will be X dollars spent for Y square feet, in any case. The problem is to have the new space if possible at the front, to open up or cover up or demolish the old front (usually including a heavy portico and space-consuming stairs and entrance) by a strip of strategic new structure across the old front, as wide as possible, and extending from the main façade out to the front sidewalk—space that will be at sidewalk level, with a glass front. This may permit an entirely new and efficient circulation room and possibly a new major reader service center. The great planning problem in all enlargements, and in much remodeling, is to integrate the old and new space, and to be able to tell the architect how the total space should be laid out most effectively to avoid time waste and to get maximum convenience for staff and readers. Enlargement could be a partial substitute, at much less cost, for a completely new building, which actually in most cases is badly needed.

THE NEW BUILDING PROJECT

It may seem to trustees, public officials and taxpayers that almost any old library building can be "fixed up" to do well enough for another stretch, without spending much money. The typical library building, until recently, was one of the poorest-planned and -designed structures in its community, ignoring its functions and operating methods, costly to operate, and one of the most costly to build in proportion to useful floor space. A competent analysis of (a) the twenty-year prospective needs of the library; (b) how far short of this the present housing is; (c) the cost of remodeling or enlarging (two or three times as great as for the same area of new space); and (d) how far the results will fall short of a satisfactory economical building will in many cases make it clear that the answer is a completely new efficiently planned building.⁸ There are numerous successful cases of remodeling and enlarging. At Corpus Christi a vacated and not very old city hall at a strategic downtown corner was drastically remodeled and enlarged to make a stunning and effective glass-front library. The old Carnegie Frankford Branch in Philadelphia was completely transformed by replacing the old front by a modern-style extended front with sidewalk entrance,⁹ an idea practical for hundreds of old buildings.

Clarifying Present Needs and Shortcomings

Most new building projects encounter considerable reluctance or opposition, besides indifference. The librarian has to get his facts, figures and arguments ready to be questioned, challenged and often combatted. Just what and how convincing are the needs? An objective survey by an experienced outsider may come up with major facts and arguments helpful in publicizing the situation. Leading up to a written Program, which is so essential, one can follow the usual formulas to calculate capacity to meet the needs of the population as it is estimated to be twenty years hence, within the library's service boundaries. If in addition to service as local library it may later become a county or regional headquarters building, more space and greater cost will be involved. If it is an independent central library or a branch of a local or regional library the following rough estimating formulas seem valid according to several 1958-1961 examples:

Table 33-1. Experience Formulas for Library Size and Costs

Popula- tion size	Book stock vols. per capita	No. of seats per 1,000 popula.	Circula- tion vols. per capita	Total sq. ft. per capita	Desirable 1st floor sq. ft. per capita	1961 Fair estimated cost per capita*
Under 10,000	3½-5	10	10	.7-8	.5-7	\$15
10,000 35,000	2¾-3	5	9.5	.6-65	.4-4.5	\$12
35,000 100,000	2½-2¾	3	9	.5-6	.25-3	\$10
100,000 200,000	1¾-2	2	8	.4-5	.15-2	\$ 9
200,000 500,000	1½-1½	1¼	7	.35-4	.1-1.25	\$ 7
500,000 and up	1-1¼	1	6.5	.3	.06-08	\$ 6

* Without furnishings (add 15%) or air conditioning (add 10%). These figures were originally based on 1940 conditions and have now been increased here and in Chapter 8 Table 8-3 to reflect larger present book stocks. Floorspace has been reduced because of economies, as discussed below.

As to branch book stocks, we point out in Chapter 24 the unwisdom of building any branch that is not assured a minimum circulation of 75,000 or will serve less than 30,000 population. An adequate branch formula

would have to provide for at least two volumes per capita for population estimated for 20 years hence. But under present conditions it is questionable whether any branch and staff can be afforded to service less than 15,000 volumes; a bookmobile can serve more cheaply and effectively with 4,000 or 4,500 volumes. The smaller book stock in a branch will affect the main floor formula very little, partly because most or all the books will be on open shelves there.

Factors in Determining Size

Figures in Table 33-1 are changed from the 1941 "V.S.C. Formula" which was developed from many actual library plans of the 1920-1940 period, and which proved fairly realistic. The space figures in Table 33-1 have been reduced as library space is now being planned more economically, but they may still be 10 or 15 per cent generous.

On the other hand book stocks per capita are higher; see Tables 1, 2 in Chapter 8.¹⁰ Columns 6 and 7 were added later by J. L. Wheeler, based on a composite of numerous more recent buildings. Any such formulas are at best approximate, but they serve for rough estimates, at least. To plan and get a close estimate for any new building a complete schedule of what is to be included, and how much space for each item, has to be prepared for inclusion in a "Program" that is essential to guide all concerned, especially the architect. A list of items for consideration in a given case is given in Wheeler and Githens.¹¹ But the various book, reader, service areas enumerated may need no enclosing walls or even screens. The whole trend in library planning is toward keeping the main floor as open as possible, reducing the structural cost, eliminating the waste of space caused by obstructions, and permitting easy shifts later on. Omitting unessential basement and upper-level spaces and using balcony or mezzanine space may cut 10 or 15 per cent of the main floor and total space-cost estimates. Many librarians and boards, when examining plans, do not become aware of imposing entrances, halls, stairways and other items that unnecessarily run up areas and costs, so some recent buildings have exceeded the foregoing formulas. They wonder why recent annual building issues (December 1, 1960) of *Library Journal* show per-square-foot costs running from \$12 to \$26 (only partly due to great regional differences in wage scales and heating equipment). If meeting, exhibit or audio-visual rooms are to be included, there is additional space cost, and they should not intrude on and interfere with main-line main-floor library functions and relationships.

Parts Played by Various Participants

The formulation of the building program is at the heart of the library's policy and activities for some years ahead; it has to be prepared by or

under direction of the librarian, but with the full cooperation of staff and trustees, as discussed below. To back up the program the trustees have to understand and believe in it, to seek and get the money, and see that a highly talented open-minded architect is appointed to solve the problems inherent in the Program. Municipal officers usually have to understand, debate and approve the project and the amount of money asked. Legal rights and procedures have to be foreseen and provided for. For some years it has been usual to submit building projects to the voters for bond-issue approval with an active campaign to inform them about the project to assure success.¹²

The Architect, the Planner and the Librarian

A librarian needs to study plans and locations of other library buildings, questioning not only the librarians and trustees who made the decisions, but their staffs and successors. Staff members often frankly point out bad points of a plan or a site which their librarians or trustees rationalize as good. They often feel far more strongly than their librarian, and the librarian feels more strongly than the trustees, that compromises should not be made on site, general aspect of the design, provision for secondary activities, extent of staff and public participation in the enterprise, etc.

No librarian can fail to recognize the importance of city planning, and what local planners are thinking and proposing as to land use, zoning and regulation of current building. Local planning officials should be consulted as to regulations such as setbacks, and impending changes in traffic flow, parking, movement of shopping and pedestrian streams, as affecting location. Librarians have failed to educate public officials and the public as to library objectives and services. Many new building projects suffer from numerous ill-founded preconceptions, especially as to location, such as the superficial idea that a library belongs in a civic or a cultural center, or should be off in a quiet street, surrounded by lawns and trees. Actually it has little relation to the functions of other municipal buildings. It is a public-service plant.

It is a cultural crime to locate a public library for any other objective than to serve the greatest number of readers, adult students and information seekers, that is, at the point where greatest volume of service can be given at least cost. This is in the downtown shopping and office building pedestrian center, with branches in major neighborhood retail pedestrian centers.¹³ Some librarians disagree, possibly rationalizing the need for easy parking to justify not fighting for the extra cost and other difficulties of acquiring a strategic central site. But recent articles by librarians describing their own buildings show clearly that despite the great increase in auto traffic and vociferous demands for parking in the shadow of the library, the librarians who have kept or won a downtown location consider this as a

great accomplishment and the reason for striking increases in public usefulness.¹⁴ For parking, it seems sensible to pay less per square foot for secondary space a block away than on the busy, more costly main-street plot where the library should be. It should not look like a Greek temple, nor be raised up on a high base, with front stairway, nor set back in landscaped grounds to give it "a setting."

An early page in the Program should explain the library's objective: to attract everyone to use it as a dynamic, modern public informational servicing plant, rather than a monument, shrine, storehouse or morgue of culture. It is an administrative responsibility for trustees and librarian to see that everyone understands and has a clear mental picture of a modern colorful attractively designed library, not aloof and superior but rubbing elbows with its neighbors, permitting a view into its busy interior, and entered from the main street at sidewalk level. Such libraries are increasingly frequent, sensible and economical. Their communities are far more enthusiastic about them than about some recent buildings which perpetuate the false dignity and the frustrations of traditional library buildings. Color pictures of highly attractive banks, stores and other recent buildings, designed with open fronts and in the modern style,¹⁵ can be passed around and exhibited to suggest how a new library of this type, in contrast to traditional ideas of a library, can be a great asset and stimulus to downtown rehabilitation.

Give Us Your Problem!

A seemingly logical statement, but misleading and harmful, was the late James Gamble Rogers' dictum, as an architect speaking to librarians: "Don't try to solve your problems. Give us your problems for the architect to solve."¹⁶ He was feeling self-assured upon the completion of a building whose planning was so uncomprehending that it is unlikely any other will copy its ideas. If he thought he had solved its problem, then the problem had not even been adequately formulated. The librarian will study and clearly state just what the problem is, for he is the one person familiar with objectives, services, materials, operations and all their interrelations. One librarian tried to solve this by attending a building institute, accepting a university librarian's evaluation of the tower-of-books idea, telling his architect about it and having a set of plans prepared. His own committee of department heads, more intelligent than he, protested. But the plans were approved; staff and readers are finding their building an hourly obstruction to quick and easy use.

A library building problem can be clarified and stated only after preliminary studies as to its component parts. The architect should not be appointed or start any planning, least of all any designing, until the site has been acquired, and until the librarian, aided by his staff and probably

by a library building consultant with a fresh, larger, experienced approach, has completed the written Program that is so important.¹⁶ In it should be a clear statement of the following points:

The general functional objective of the building. The general exterior aspect. The location it should have for greatest usefulness at least cost (its site should be decided and acquired before the architect is appointed), and the relation of building and site. The ideas of flexibility and economy, therefore of openness. The probable number of floors and levels. The importance of only one adult patron entrance. The list by priority of major public service facilities. The contents and relationships on the main floor. Those on any mezzanine. Those in any basement. Those on any upper levels. A clear statement of the most important proximities to be worked out, as to departments, readers and materials, service points and related staff workrooms. A schedule of estimated spaces for all facilities, arranged by floors. A preliminary schedule of equipment and furnishings, especially those influencing ducts, conduits and other service lines. A statement as to heating, ventilating, washrooms, maintenance points, lighting, service access, etc. A statement as to ceiling and cross-section heights, and modular or "bay" dimensions suggested, as affecting costs. A summary as to square and cubic areas and estimated costs.

To prepare these data any perceptive librarian will feel the need of help from his staff, from the literature on library and other current buildings and from a consultant. For this problem, which the librarian wishes to hand his architect, is not revealed clearly until librarian and staff have gone as far as they can, not only to write out in detail their ideas under these seventeen headings, but to make successive tries at a rough pencil layout, at least of the main floor, of the best relationships of the chief operational areas of the new library. When they begin to weigh the pros and cons of placing here or there, the entrance and the main public service points in a preliminary rough diagram of this busy service floor—only then can they begin to understand just what their problem really is.¹⁷ They will be glad enough to have the architect take over their program and their preliminary layout. But they will then know enough to explain to the architect the whys and wherefores, which will clarify plan arrangement. With this better understanding of what is involved he will draw from his experience the resourceful and often astonishingly clever solutions that make for an efficient building. One reason why the librarians should go as far as they can, to see that what they consider essential will be understood also by the architect as essential, is the temptation by every architect to start to visualize his building before he has had time to study and understand its purposes and its operations.

This preliminary work on a new building is very much an administrative matter: to draw out all the ideas, initiative, zeal of an interested staff, trustees and other cooperators, and make it available to the architect before decisions are frozen into structure. It costs no more to plan well; it

costs less to see that everything, including structure and utilities, is thought out with keen awareness of reader use and how staff time can be saved in operating. It is an exhilarating experience for a board of trustees, staff, librarian, and architect to carry through a new building project that will speed up the library's progress and bring pride to its community.

GENERAL REFERENCES

NOTE. Several books on the care of large buildings appear each year. *Better Building Maintenance*, monthly, \$3 per year, Trade Press Publishing Co., 407 E. Michigan St., Milwaukee, Wis., covers a wide range of janitorial problems, current developments in materials, equipment and methods. Librarians contemplating enlargements, face liftings or new buildings should scan illustrations, color plates and advertisements in *Architectural Record*, *Architectural Forum* and *Progressive Architecture*.

FOOTNOTES AND SPECIAL MATERIAL

1. G. C. Robinette, Jr. "City Hall Janitorial by Contract." *American City*, 74: 114, June 1959. Lists 15 aspects of the work and terms in one city's contract.

2. Robert C. Newman, et al. *Janitorial Service in Small Libraries*. 32 p. 1938. Author, c/o Public Library, Pittsfield, Mass. 51. The most useful single guide, despite its date.

3. Nelson E. Viles. *Improving School Custodial Service*. 32 p. U.S. Office of Education. *Bulletin*, 1949. No. 13. 15¢, no later ed. Useful as to personnel setup in larger cities but does not cover janitorial methods. Includes outline of topics for 11-session janitorial instruction, and two sample job sheets. Also Ralph N. Fincham. *School Plant Management*, 98 p. U.S. Office of Education. *Bulletin*, 1960. No. 15. 50¢, and his *Administering the School Custodial Program*. 97 p. *Bulletin*, 1961. No. 4. 40¢. Includes recent developments but mostly on the management aspects in large buildings and cities. A bulletin on maintenance methods is in preparation and one on janitorial methods is contemplated.

4. Henry H. Linn, et al. *The School Custodian's Housekeeping Handbook*. 256 p. 1948. Teachers College, Columbia Univ. \$3.75. The most complete guide on organizing and methods; e.g., 17 pages on cleaning windows and light fixtures. Primarily for large buildings.

5. Here would be listed whatever pamphlet or bulletin is issued by your state educational authority on janitorial work. If your state has none, or not an adequate one, ask Enoch Pratt Library at Baltimore for title of the currently best one. One of the best for the money is Alenson D. Brainard, *Handbook for School Custodians*. 350 p. 5th ed. rev. ed. 1961. Univ. of Nebraska Press. \$2.50, paper.

6. *Veterans Administration Training Guides*. 1954. No. TG 10-2. Sweeping, 27 p. 25¢. TG 10-3. Mopping, 45 p. 35¢. TG 10-4. Dusting Operations, 23 p. 20¢. TG 10-6. Washing, 45 p. 30¢. GPO. Time-saving details of interest in any library of 10,000 upward.

7. Enoch Pratt Free Library. *Salary Statistics for Large Public Libraries for 1961*. Large lithoprint sheet.

8. See plans and proposals for Freeport, Ill., in Keith Dums and H. Revelstad, eds. *Guidelines for Library Planners, Proceedings . . .* 1959, 128 p. 1960. A.L.A. \$3.75. p. 86-89. Example of a building presenting many difficulties; expensive changes would get

unsatisfactory results, while otherwise it might lose its strategic site. General discussion of remodeling, p. 123-128. Also James E. Bryan. "Remodeling of Library Buildings." *A.L.A. Bulletin*. 43: 77-81. Feb. 1949. Also, Herbert Goldhor and Lawrence A. Sahn. *The Renovation of a Medium-Sized Public Library Building*. (Univ. of Illinois Library School. Occasional Papers No. 63.) 9 p. Dec. 1961.

9. Lawrence Di Pietro. "Philadelphia's Face Lifting." *Library Journal*. 84: 3705-3706. Dec. 1, 1959.

10. Joseph L. Wheeler and Alfred M. Githens. *The American Public Library Building*. 484 p. 1941. Scribner. Reprinted 1951 by A.L.A. o.p. Chapter 5, on computing size; also Chapter 7, on building operation costs as a factor in planning. Large city libraries with branches will get good ideas from Wallace H. Strevell and A. J. Burke. *Administration of the School Building Program*. 443 p. 1959. McGraw-Hill. \$7.50. Devoted only to new building.

11. Wheeler and Githens. *op. cit.* Chapter 11. Schedule of building elements and areas.

12. Snyder E. Herrin. "Legal and Practical Aspects of Planning." *Illinois Libraries*. 42: 627-632. Dec. 1960. Includes various factors that affect public response to a bond-issue vote. See also references on campaigns in Chapter 9.

13. Joseph L. Wheeler. *The Effective Location of Library Buildings*. 50 p. 1958. Univ. of Illinois Library School. Occasional Papers No. 52. \$1. Includes much about buildings themselves—general aspect, space saving, economics. Also Leon A. Harris. "Speech to the Public Library Association of Waco." *Texas Library Journal*. 35: 10-15. March 1959. A library trustee discusses factors in choice of Dallas' downtown location. Also Jane Jacobs. *The Death and Life of Great American Cities*. 458 p. 1961. Random. \$7.50. An enthusiastically reviewed researched challenge to numerous current ideas on urban renewal. See p. 161-162, 385, and other passages emphasizing the human element in center-city life.

14. See, among other items, articles in the December 1 annual building issues of *Library Journal*. Also "Public Library Site Controversy," *Library Journal*. 84: 561-564. Feb. 15, 1959. The South Bend board received Indiana Library Association's trustee award for standing firm against putting the new library in a proposed civic center; it was built downtown where the old building had stood. Also the recent case of San Diego (cited in Wheeler, *loc. cit.* above) where better temporary quarters in Balboa Park in a larger building than the former downtown Carnegie Building and with ideal parking, resulted in heavy decrease in both circulation and reference service.

15. James Gamble Rogers. "An Architect Looks at Library Buildings." *A.L.A. Bulletin*. 31: 799. Oct. 15, 1937.

16. See Wheeler and Githens. *op. cit.* p. 75-80. Also Margaret Klausner and F. J. McCarthy. *Requirements and Preliminary Plan . . .* Watsonville, California Public Library. 31 p. 1959. Also Joseph L. Wheeler. *Program for East Yonkers Branch Library*. 40 p. 1958. Yonkers, N.Y., Public Library. See also the valuable *Building Standards for New Branches*. 26 p. 1958. Los Angeles P. L., which gives schedules of space allotments, lists of equipment, etc., for branches of three population-size categories. A summary list of major areas in smaller buildings included in Joseph L. Wheeler. *Trends in Small Public Library Buildings*. Small Libraries Project Pamphlet No. 13. 1962. A. L. A.

17. Wheeler and Githens. *op. cit.* p. 324-349. A still essential discussion of various placements of major elements that should not be separated.

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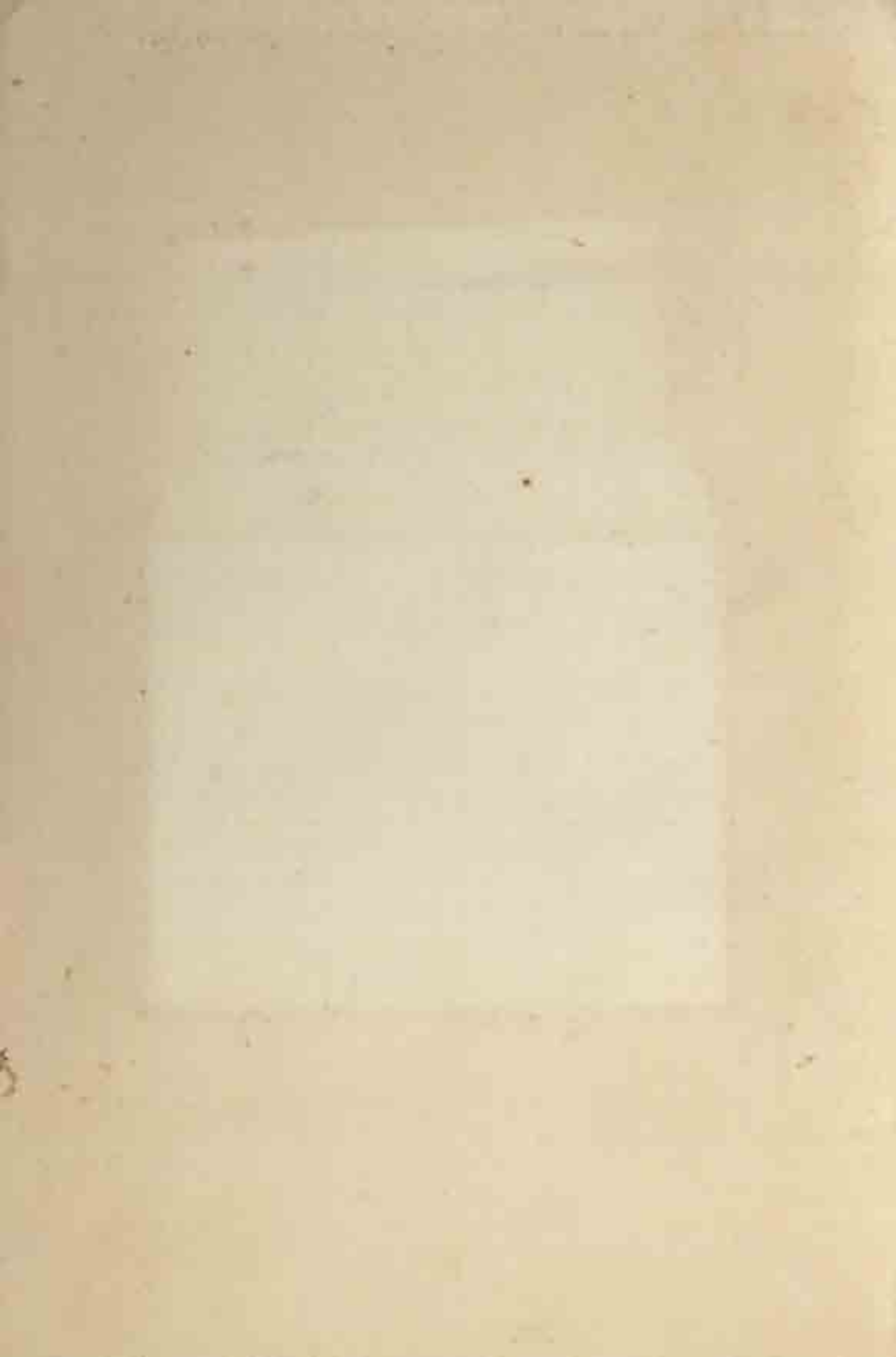
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The two authors are national leaders in library administration. Joseph Wheeler as a freshman assistant at Brown changed from an engineering course to prepare for librarianship, heading the Jacksonville and Youngstown libraries in 1911-1912, and 1915-1926, and bringing Baltimore's Enoch Pratt Library to front rank, 1926-1945. He has been surveyor or consultant on more library administrative and building situations (108) than any other person. The citation for the Lippincott Award as A. L. A.'s Librarian of the Year, 1961, says: "He blazed new trails, introduced new concepts, pioneered in administrative methods, public relations and staff participation in the development of programs." He cut costs and multiplied services. He initiated two reference indexes now used everywhere: "The Industrial Arts Index" and "Library Literature."

Author of *The Library and the Community*, *The American Public Library Building* (with architect Githens), and a survey of library schools, 1946, for the Carnegie Corporation, he initiated in 1959 the A. L. A.'s current Small Libraries Project, with a foundation fund, to improve 6,000 small town and village libraries. Convinced of the power of books, reading, and information seeking, he has worked to "humanize" libraries, has promoted book lists, home reading projects, poetry broadsides, public interest in history and the humanities, while developing his own colleagues who now head a dozen large city libraries, and include two A. L. A. presidents.

Starting as an assistant at Newark Public Library, Herbert Goldhor has been continually interested in management and in the research function—finding the facts as basic to decision and action. After Columbia University Library School (1938) he earned his Ph. D. in 1942 at the University of Chicago Graduate Library School, and served in the Army. He was a member of the faculty at the University of Illinois Library School from 1946-1952, when he was appointed director of the Evansville and Vanderburgh County Library (Indiana). As an outstanding administrator, he pushed forward this library's public services, its staff abilities and morale. Its staff bulletin, reporting a constant flow of factual studies on services, methods, and costs, has been in national demand as a source of progressive ideas. At Illinois he started the *Index of American Public Library Circulation* currently appearing in the *A. L. A. Bulletin*. In 1960 he created *Public Library Abstracts* of current research material which he still edits for Indiana University. He has just been made Associate Director at the University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science.

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